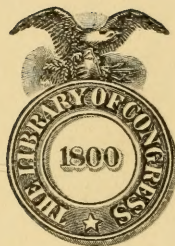


A HISTORY OF
THE
UNITED STATES
FOR
CATHOLIC SCHOOLS



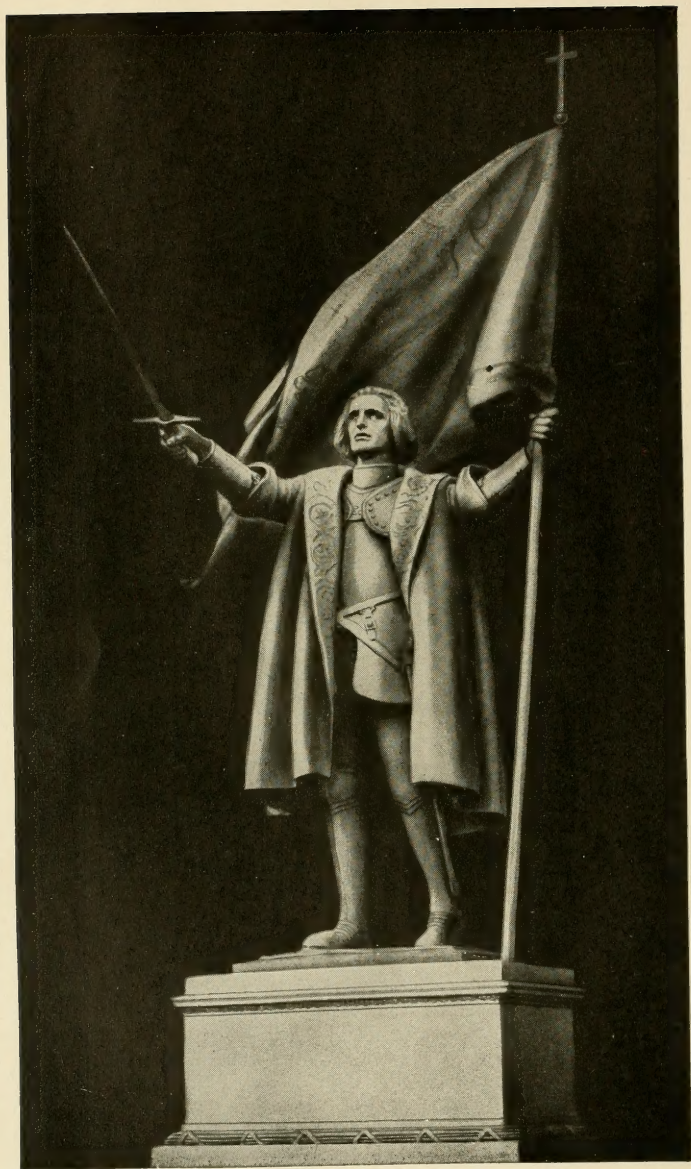


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Book 1

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CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS
After St. Gaudens' Statue

A HISTORY OF THE
UNITED STATES
FOR CATHOLIC SCHOOLS

PREPARED AND ARRANGED BY
of the Third order of St. Francis
THE FRANCISCAN SISTERS OF THE PERPETUAL ADORATION.
ST. ROSE CONVENT, LA CROSSE, WIS.

SCOTT, FORESMAN AND COMPANY
CHICAGO NEW YORK

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FOREWORD

There are many histories of the United States, each bearing its message of patriotism. The purpose of this modest volume, "A History of the United States for Catholic Schools,"—the revised edition of "American History Briefly Told,"—is not to multiply books, but rather to offer a text which sets forth not only all the usually taught historical facts, but also the too often forgotten efforts of the Church in American History. The venturesome explorer, the intrepid colonizer, the hardy pioneer, the noble warrior, the eloquent statesman, are all given their due praise; but the quiet heroism of the loyal sons and daughters of the Catholic Church is also lifted from obscurity into the light of reverent knowledge.

Our country is justly proud of the liberty she offers to all her children. But these children are many in faith, and diversified in race peculiarities. Common interests may seem to unite them from time to time, but there can be no true, permanent union except where the spirit and the faith are dominating forces. But where is found such a bond of unity except in the Catholic Church? Mother Church folds her arms about all her children and questions not their color or their race.

The mind may travel with lightning speed from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from the frozen plains of the north to the sunny plantations of the south; it may grasp with keen perception all that this great country symbolizes and displays; the heart may glow with righteous pride for our national achievements. But in addition to all these, the great share that Catholics have had in the discovery and exploration of America should thrill with reverent joy the heart of every Catholic student, and cause him to love more sincerely

and serve more loyally the chosen country of God. For this is the land whose borders Ericson and Columbus first touched; whose Great Lakes were discovered and made known by Champlain; whose broad Mississippi Valley and fertile western plains were first traversed by intrepid and self-sacrificing men, such as Father Hennepin, Du Lhut, Joliet, Father Marquette, and La Salle—Catholics, every one of them. Furthermore, it is the land whose virgin soil was hallowed by the blood of the Catholic missionaries; in whose council halls rang the voices of eloquent Catholic statesmen; and on whose battlefields fearless Catholic soldiers bled, and quiet Sisters of Charity served.

We may not build a shrine at every spot consecrated by the glorious deeds of our unlaureled Catholic heroes and heroines who have helped to make our history, but we may set up these shrines in the hearts of the young. Here we may hope to build a temple in the inner sanctuary, in which the Blessed Mother, the Patroness of the Republic of Washington and Lincoln, may be honored with devotion undying. To Mary Immaculate this modest work is humbly dedicated.

In the preparation of this book, the authors have had assistance from so many persons that it would be quite impracticable in this restricted space to mention them all. Special thanks are due to the Jesuit Fathers of Prairie du Chien, Wisconsin, and St. Louis, Missouri; as also to other scholarly members of the Catholic clergy who have read and re-read the manuscript and offered numerous valuable suggestions. Miss Mary E. Tobin, Principal of the Marquette School, Chicago, Illinois, among others, has read critically the proofs and has rendered important service in preparing this work for publication.

TO THE TEACHER

Each chapter in this book contains a unit of closely associated facts. The teacher may well read and discuss each entire unit with his class before assigning any part of it for study, even though this reading may take more than one recitation period.

Only those dates should be memorized which serve to associate important facts more closely. Dates; however, are to the student what milestones are to the traveler, and they should not be neglected. In the "Chronological Review" at the end of each period, important dates are listed.

Use maps daily when discussing voyages, explorations, settlements, etc. Trace routes and locate settlements on the map. It may serve well to quote Carlyle here, who says that chronology and geography are "the two great lamps of history."

In the teaching of the different periods, or epochs, into which the history is divided, the following points should be made clear to pupils:

1. Be sure that the pupils appreciate the proper setting of United States history, before they begin to study it in detail. They should know the threefold chronological divisions of world history—Ancient, Medieval, and Modern. They should also understand the difference between Sacred history and Profane, or Secular history;

2. Acquaint the pupil thoroughly with the important events of the period of Colonization, since our later history and the Constitution can be understood only in the light of our pioneer history. Note:

- (a) how Christianity, though represented by conflicting

creeds, existed in each colony, and how the Catholic Church, like the mustard seed of the Gospel, has flourished and grown, as it were, into a mighty tree;

(b) how the emigration from many different nations has given us that remarkable sobriety, thrift, and progressiveness for which our country is characterized. Call attention to the fact that the original traits can still be distinguished in the manners and customs of the direct descendants of the pioneer colonizers, who inhabit certain localities, (Pennsylvania, Maryland, New York, Massachusetts);

(c) how the early assemblies and other institutions of self-government in the colonies eventually developed into our present republican government vested in three departments;

(d) that the origin of our present Constitution may be traced back to the principles which were set out in the *Mayflower* compact of the Pilgrims, the charter of Lord Baltimore, Penn's Great Law, and the Fundamental Orders of Connecticut;

(e) how our present public school system had its origin in the educational zeal of the northern colony builders, and how our cherished parochial schools grew from humble beginnings into the splendid system which now labors so zealously for the spiritual and intellectual welfare of our country.

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"Imprimatur."
+ James Schmebach, Bishop.
La Crosse. August 28th 1914.

Dear Sisters:

Three years ago I gave my Imprimatur to your first history of America stating at the same time that I did so with pleasure being convinced that it was so far the best history for our Catholic schools. Since then you have revised that work "American History Briefly Told" and you now present to us a still more valuable work in your "United States History for Catholic Schools." There are several excellent histories of the U. S., but we missed an important factor in all of them namely, the part which the Catholic Church took in the making of America. This has been either overlooked, or too briefly mentioned. Your revised history does not only give all important historical facts, but points out in a clear manner the part Catholics have had in the discovery, exploration, civilization and protection of America; facts which must thrill the heart of every Catholic with joy and enthusiasm for this our beloved country and our holy mother the Church.

With still greater pleasure do I therefore renew the "Imprimatur," and am convinced that your history will be greeted with joy by our Catholic teachers and scholars.

With best wishes

Sincerely yours
+ James Schmebach
Bp. of La Crosse.

A History of the United States

PERIOD OF EARLIEST INHABITANTS

CHAPTER I

THE INDIANS

1. Name and Origin. When Europeans discovered America they supposed it to be Asia, and they called the natives Indians, after India, which country they had hoped to reach by sailing westward. Whence the Indians came is not certain. We can only conjecture that they must have emigrated from Asia. One thing, however, is certain: the Indians had for long ages been spread over all of North and South America before white men came here.

2. Characteristics. The Indian was tall, straight, vigorous, and well-formed, of a cinnamon color, with a broad face marked with high cheek-bones and small, dull eyes. His long, straight hair was conspicuous for a scalp-lock which grew from the top of his head. This lock was cherished by every "brave," as the Indian warrior was called, as he believed without it he could not enter the "Happy Hunting Ground." The Indian was a keen and cruel enemy, but a courageous, faithful friend where he felt any love.

3. Manners and Customs. In winter or in cold climates the American Indian wore skins of animals, decorated with beads, feathers, shells, scalps, etc., while in summer or in very warm climates he wore little or no clothing. He lived in movable tents called wigwams: also in rude huts of earth or bark, or in caverns among mountain cliffs. The men hunted, fished, or fought, while the women did the manual work, such

as gathering the scanty crops of maize, potatoes, and tobacco. Swift and stealthy of foot, the Indian followed the trail of the deer, buffalo, and other wild animals. The weapons used were bows and arrows, tomahawks, knives, and clubs. The birchbark canoe which he carried from one waterway to another served him as horse, steamboat, and railroad. The Indian had no written language, but sometimes recorded battles and other

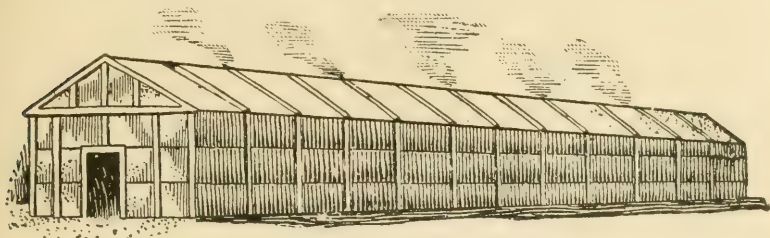


INDIAN TEPEE

events by means of picture writing on bark, tanned skins, or the walls of his dwellings.

4. Religion. The Indian religion was a nature and ancestor worship. He recognized one Supreme Being, the Great Spirit, who, he believed, dwelt in every creature and brought sunshine,

peace, and a good harvest. He also believed in an evil spirit, from whom came disease and famine. He looked to a life beyond the grave to be spent in the "Happy Hunting Ground." Singing and dancing were notable features in his religion, and these usually preceded, accompanied, or followed all important undertakings.



AN IROQUOIS LONG-HOUSE

5. Three Great Families. The Indians of our country were divided into several hundred tribes, which were again subdivided by relationship into clans. Each tribe had for its name that of some animal. The turtle, bear, and wolf were special favorites. The picture of this animal became the emblem of the tribe and was called totem.

The Indian tribes located east of the Mississippi River were divided into three great families:

- (a) the Maskokis, or Mobilians, living south of the Tennessee River;
- (b) the Iroquois, or Six Nations, occupying central New York, parts of North Carolina, and the country north and south of Lake Erie;
- (c) the Algonquins, inhabiting the rest of the territory north of the Ohio River, and also the larger part of Canada.

6. Degrees of Civilization. The early Indians may be divided into three grades—savage, barbarous, and semi-civilized.

The savage Indians occupied the country west of Hudson Bay and west of the Rocky Mountains as far south as the northern

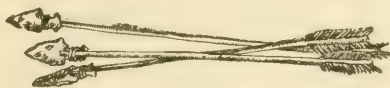
part of Mexico. They did not till the soil, or settle in villages, but lived on fish and game.

The barbarous Indians inhabited all of North America south of Hudson Bay and east of the Rocky Mountains. Rudely tilling the soil, they raised such plants as maize, or "Indian corn," tobacco, pumpkins, squashes, beans, tomatoes, and sun-flowers. They settled in villages consisting of houses of bark or sunburnt clay and movable tepees. (See page 16.) They comprised chiefly the three great families living east of the Mississippi River.

These Indians played a conspicuous part in the history of the United States, for with them our people first came into contact, and with them they had first to fight.

The semi-civilized Indians lived chiefly in the mountainous country from New Mexico southward as far as Chili. They tilled and irrigated the soil and built houses and fortresses four or five stories high. Their dwellings, frequently grouped in villages, were called pueblos, and were sometimes built high up on cliffs for the sake of security against the savage Indians.

7. Mounds. Many thousands of mounds built by the pre-historic inhabitants of America are found in the valleys of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. At one time it was thought that these mounds were built by a mysterious race of very superior civilization, because of the skill shown in the sculptured relics discovered in them. These thousands of relics have been carefully examined and it is now believed that the "Mound Builders" were but the ancestors of the Indians found in the country by the French and English pioneers.



FLINT-TIPPED ARROWS

PERIOD OF DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS

CHAPTER II

EUROPEAN CONDITIONS PREPARATORY TO THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA

8. Early Discoveries and Explorations. This period extends from the discovery of America, 1492, to the settlement of Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607, and includes the discoveries and explorations made by the various European nations in the New World during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

9. Causes that Led to the Discovery of America Were:—

- (a) the belief that the earth is round;
- (b) the demand for a nearer route to India;
- (c) the desire to acquire wealth and territory, and
- (d) the desire to spread the Catholic faith.

10. The Northmen. The descendants of the early inhabitants of Norway and Sweden were the first Europeans to set foot on the American continent.

These bold sea-rovers discovered and colonized, successively, Iceland (874), Greenland (984), and eventually the North American continent (1002). This last achievement was made by Leif Ericson, who, on one of his voyages, sailed along the



RUINS OF A NORSE CHURCH IN
GREENLAND

coast in the neighborhood of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and New England. In this vicinity a Norse colony was founded.

Finding wild grapes abundant, Ericson called the country Vinland. (Read Longfellow's "Skeleton in Armor.")

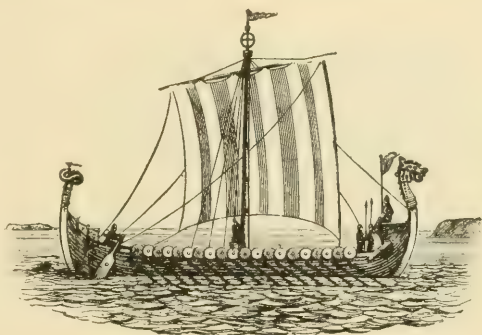
The Northmen brought Christianity with them and the churches and monasteries established in Greenland maintained themselves for centuries. The Episcopal see, founded at Gardar, had a succession of sixteen or seventeen bishops.

The discovery of America by the Northmen was barren of all results, for the Vinland discoveries and explorations attracted no attention in southern Europe. The depopulation of Greenland by the "black death" cut off all communication between Vinland and Iceland. The knowledge of the route hither was lost and the existence of the continent almost forgotten, even in Iceland. The memory thereof, however, was handed down from generation to generation in the Norse sagas.

11. Influence of the Crusades. For ages before the discovery of America by Columbus there had been more or less

trade between Europe and Asia, and this trade increased rapidly after the Crusades (1095-1291) had brought the people of northern and western Europe to a closer knowledge of the oriental world.

12. Commercial Centers—Routes. Genoa and Venice, two Italian cities, controlled the commerce of the Mediterranean Sea, and became enriched by trade with the East. "India," an indefinite and almost unknown region, comprising what is now India, Persia, China (Cathay), and Japan (Cipango), supplied Europe with dyestuffs, spices, costly shawls, silks, precious



A VIKING SHIP

stones, and ivory, in exchange for the iron, tin, lead, grains, wool, soap, and furs of the Mediterranean and Baltic countries. Venice controlled the route to India by way of the Adriatic Sea, Mediterranean Sea, Alexandria (chief port), the Isthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean. Genoa controlled the route by way of the Mediterranean Sea, the Aegean Sea, the Bosphorus (Constantinople, chief port), the Black and Caspian Seas, overland through the desert to India and Eastern Asia. There was still a third, or middle route across Syria (Antioch, Damascus, Bagdad as chief centers) by way of the Persian Gulf and Indian Ocean.

When Constantinople, for more than a thousand years the chief center of Christendom, was conquered by the Turks in 1453, and the Crescent sup-

planted the Cross, the Turks refused the use of the Bosphorus and the Black Sea to the Christian trader. Thus the route of Genoa was closed. About the same time excessive dues were exacted by Egypt, and the commerce of Venice became unprofitable. Hence, the great problem of the age,



EARLY PRINTERS

which eventually led to the discovery of America, was, how to reach India by sea. If this could be accomplished, a nearer, safer, and cheaper route to the rich products of the East would be assured.

13. Aids to Discovery. The compass, pointing out to the sailor the direction in which he was moving, and the astrolabe, an instrument for ascertaining latitude, encouraged the mariner to venture far out into the sea. Gunpowder made easy the conquest of uncivilized people, and the printing press spread abroad the knowledge of newly found lands, inspiring men

with a longing to go into far countries in search of wealth and fame.

14. A Great Traveler. Marco Polo, a native of Venice, accompanied his father on a trading tour to China, whence he returned to Venice after an absence of twenty-four years. Soon after his return, 1295, he wrote a book in which he told the story of his travels in the wonderful eastern country known as China, Japan, East India, and Farther India. In this book he confirmed the growing belief that there was an ocean east of Asia, and, as the earth was thought to be a globe, it was but natural to conclude that the ocean east of Asia and that west of Europe might be but one body of water, and that a voyage westward would bring the mariner to India. Marco Polo's book was widely read, and exerted great influence in the fifteenth century, inspiring men with the desire to reach the golden land described in it.

15. The Earth a Globe. Aristotle, a famous Greek philosopher, three centuries before the Christian era, proved that the earth is spherical in shape; as did also Claudius Ptolemy, an Egyptian astronomer of about the middle of the second century after Christ. Ptolemy likewise maintained the theory that the circumference of the earth at the equator is about 21,600 miles.

The globular theory of the form of the earth was preserved during the Middle Ages partly by the Arab philosophers, but chiefly by the great monastic and secular scholars of the Catholic Church; for example, Cardinal D'Ailly, Roger Bacon, Prince Henry of Portugal, Copernicus, Galileo, and Toscanelli.

In the time of Columbus, nearly all men of learning believed the earth to be a sphere, although the general public thought that the earth was flat, surrounded by the oceans and the dome-like heavens.

16. Rotation—Revolution—Universal Gravity. Scholars and philosophers had proved the earth spherical, but they thought it stood still, and that all other heavenly bodies revolved around it daily.

Nicholas Copernicus (1473-1543), a Polish priest, philosopher, and astronomer, broke loose from the theory of Ptolemy, which held that the heavenly bodies moved about the earth, and laboriously thought out the now known facts that:

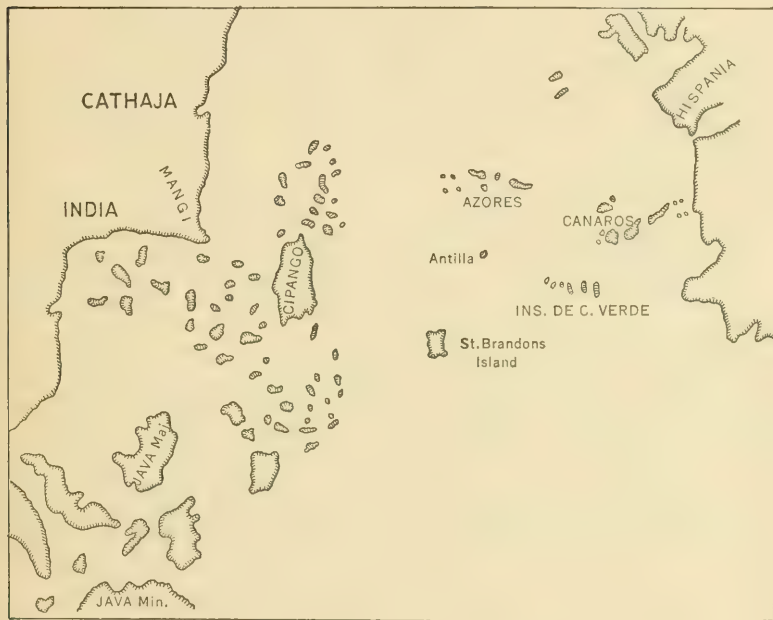
- (a) the earth makes a complete rotation on its axis every day;
- (b) the sun, and not the earth, is the center of motion.

Catholic churchmen raised no question concerning the teaching of Copernicus until Galileo (1564-1642), a great Florentine philosopher, denied the accuracy of certain Scriptural statements. Galileo, not confining himself to his own province of science, confused revealed truths with physical discoveries and claimed that in Scripture are found statements which, taken literally, are false—such as the sun's staying its course at the prayers of Joshua, or the earth's being ever immovable. Accused before the Inquisition, he continued his attacks upon the traditional interpretation of Holy Writ and was condemned to imprisonment. Pope Urban VIII, however, changed the sentence to an honorable confinement in commodious apartments, where Galileo quietly pursued his studies. Five years before his death he became totally blind. He died professing his unshaken faith in the Church and with the special blessing of Pope Urban VIII. The Catholic Church has been accused of persecuting science in the person of Galileo. This accusation is untrue. Had Galileo not falsely interpreted Scripture he might have gone on undisturbed with his observations and discoveries.

Although it had been proved that the earth is spherical, men could not understand why people living on the opposite side of this globe did not fall off, or how they walked with their heads downward. Isaac Newton, an English mathematician (1642-1727), born on the same day on which Galileo died, discovered the law of gravity.

17. Cape of Good Hope Reached. Italy was the most advanced nation in navigation and geographical knowledge at this period, and the leading discoverers of the time—Columbus, Cabot, Vespucci, and Verrazano—were Italians. The position

of Italy, however, prevented her from taking the lead in discovery, and Portugal became the foremost country in searching for a waterway to the Indies around Africa. Beginning early in the fifteenth century, and continuing for seventy years of brave struggle, her vessels and seamen cautiously skirted the coasts of Africa. Finally, in 1487, Bartholomew Diaz, a Portuguese, completed a voyage from Lisbon along the African coast to the extreme southern point, which he called the Cape



ST. BRANDON'S ISLAND AS SHOWN ON BEHAIM'S GLOBE

of Storms, and thence far into the Indian Ocean. The cape was significantly named Cape of Good Hope by the monarch of Portugal. Diaz's voyage was the greatest in history up to that time. It gave rise to the belief that India could be reached by sailing around Africa, and proved that the "sea monsters" and "fiery zones" were but phantoms.

18. Precursors of Columbus. Cardinal Peter D'Ailly, or Alliatus (1350-1420), surnamed the Eagle of the French Doctors of the Church, wrote the *Imago Mundi*, a Latin treatise upon geography, in which he gives the geographical ideas of great men even from the early times. Columbus carefully studied this book, a copy of which, bearing annotations in his own handwriting, is still preserved at Seville, Spain.

Prince Henry of Portugal, surnamed the Navigator (1394-1463), noted for his learning, valor, generosity, and piety, a liberal patron of science, directed a partial circumnavigation of Africa. The use of the compass in navigation, and, in part, the invention of the astrolabe, are ascribed to him. The enterprises of this celebrated man did much to kindle the aspiration of Columbus.

Paul Toscanelli (1397-1482), a famous Catholic astronomer living in Florence (1474), entered into correspondence with Columbus, encouraging his proposal, and furnishing him a map projected partly according to Marco Polo and partly according to Ptolemy.

Martin Behaim, a friend of Columbus, made a globe to represent the views of those who believed that the earth is a sphere. This globe was finished in 1492 before Columbus set out on his famous voyage and is still in existence at Nuremberg. On this globe is shown the island of St. Brandon, so named from the Irish saint who, according to legend, crossed the Atlantic nearly one thousand years before Columbus.

CHAPTER III

THE DISCOVERY OF THE NEW WORLD—THE ROUTE TO INDIA

19. Sailing West to Reach the East. The places in Palestine hallowed by some event of our Lord's life, and, above all, the Holy Sepulcher of Christ, have always been looked upon by Christendom as the visible embodiment of the mysteries of Redemption, and as such have ever been held in great veneration by the faithful. In 637 the city of Jerusalem fell into the hands of the Mohammedans in whose exclusive possession, except for a short interval of time, it has been ever since.

Columbus was of a deeply religious nature. He purposed to carry the gospel of Christ to heathen lands and to use the possible wealth he should acquire for the recovery of the Holy Sepulcher.

Although learned men for a thousand years had believed the earth a sphere, and that Asia could be reached by sailing westward across the "Sea of Darkness," as the Atlantic was then called, no one had ventured on a journey so perilous, until Columbus planned to test the truth of the theory, upon which he had pondered for many years. He had, however, no idea of the real size of the earth, thinking that by sailing three thousand miles directly west from the Canary Islands, he could reach India.

20. In Quest of Help. For the carrying out of such a costly enterprise the support of some government was necessary. Columbus first sought to interest the king of Portugal in his project; but, receiving no encouragement, in 1485 he turned to Spain. Here he learned that Ferdinand and Isabella could not engage in any new uncertain enterprise, since Spain was then at war with the Moors.

The Conquest of Granada ended Moorish power in Spain. Then Queen Isabella, guided by her confessor, Juan Perez, the friend of Columbus, summoned the great navigator to her court and listened to his plea. His suspense seemed ended, but as Ferdinand and Isabella would not agree to the terms he desired he once more set out to seek aid, this time from France. The queen, however, generously recalled him, offering, if necessary, to sell her jewels to assist. She at once issued orders for the necessary arrangements for his voyage.

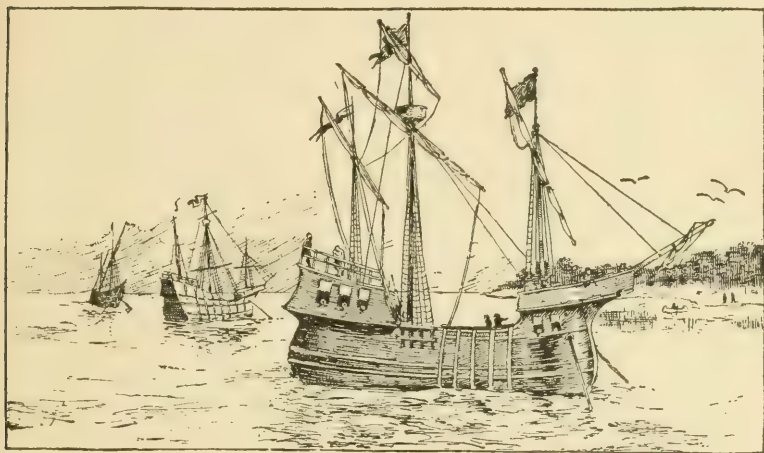


DEPARTURE OF COLUMBUS (FROM AN OLD ENGRAVING)

21. Columbus Prepares for the Voyage. Columbus now went to Palos, Spain, to make the necessary preparations for the voyage. This was a difficult task. Even the most daring seamen shrank from joining such a foolhardy undertaking as the expedition was felt to be. At length Columbus succeeded in fitting out three small ships manned with one hundred and

twenty men, many of whom were forced into service by order of the crown. Thus with the *Santa Maria*, the *Nina*, and the *Pinta*, filled for the most part with unwilling men, the world-finder was at last ready to begin his great western voyage.

Had it not been for Juan Perez, the Father Guardian of La Rabida, Columbus would scarcely have succeeded in securing the necessary number of men to fit out his expedition. Through the influence of this good Father, the Pinzon brothers, experienced mariners of good family, entered warmly into the views of Columbus. and, offering assistance and means, agreed to



THE FLEET OF COLUMBUS

accompany him. The worthy priest also exerted no little influence over the townspeople of Palos; he made his rounds among them trying to convince them of the feasibility of the voyage and of the unreality of the imaginary ocean terrors.

22. The Voyage. Columbus sailed from Palos on Friday, August 3d, 1492, at 8 A. M. He steered straight into the trackless ocean, relying firmly on God and on his own scientific theory. This fact alone suffices to make him one of the most

sublime figures in history. Before sailing, Columbus and his crew partook of the sacraments of Penance and the Holy Eucharist and assisted at Holy Mass offered by Father Juan Perez in the monastery of Rabida. Columbus delayed for some weeks at the Canary Islands for the purpose of refitting his vessels. From here the little fleet sailed westward wafted along by light easterly breezes. Belts of calms and the Sargasso Sea, as also the variation of the magnetic needle of the compass, and other real and imaginary causes for alarm, rendered the nearly frenzied crew ripe for mutiny. They resolved to cast Columbus into the sea, should he refuse to return to Spain. The Grand Admiral, sustained by strength from on high, quelled the mutiny with gentle eloquence, and declared boldly that nothing could turn him from his course. On the night of October 11, Columbus intently watching for land, suddenly saw a light moving up and down in the distance. Finally, on Friday, October 12, 1492, land was sighted, at which event Columbus and his men fell on their knees and chanted the *Te Deum*.

23. The Landing. At daybreak of the memorable twelfth of October, 1492, Columbus stepped on shore and, kneeling with his crew, gave thanks to God. He took possession of the land in the name of the Spanish sovereigns and called it San Salvador (Holy Savior). Which of the three thousand islands of the Bahama group San Salvador was, no one knows. He then solemnly planted a large cross midst the chanting of the *Vexilla Regis*:

Behold the Royal ensigns fly,
Bearing the Cross's mystery;
Where Life itself did death endure,
And by that death did life procure.

Columbus cruised from island to island, discovered Cuba and Haiti, and left on the latter thirty-nine men to form a colony. This colony was soon destroyed by the natives, whose hostility some of its members had imprudently provoked.

Columbus also discovered tobacco and the sweet potato, heretofore unknown to civilization. Both products became important factors in the markets of the world. Thinking that he had reached Asia, Columbus called the newly discovered lands West Indies, and the native people Indians.

24. Return Voyage. In January (1493) Columbus set out on his return voyage with only the *Nina* and the *Pinta*, the *Santa Maria* having been wrecked on the island of Haiti. He took with him gold, cotton, native birds, strange plants and animals, and six Indians. After a fearfully stormy voyage he at last cast anchor in the harbor of Palos, on Friday, the fifteenth of March (1493). He soon went to Barcelona, where the most distinguished attention was lavished upon him by the Spanish crown and people. The Indians were duly instructed and baptized. Queen Isabella stood at the font of baptism as their godmother.

25. Later Voyages of Columbus. Columbus made three other voyages to the New World. In 1493 he discovered Porto Rico, the Windward Islands, Jamaica; in 1498, the island of Trinidad; later, in the same year, the continent of South America at the mouth of the Orinoco River; and in 1502, Central America and Panama. He was not aware, however, that he had discovered a continent and never doubting that all the land found was Asia, wondered that he did not find Asia's vast riches.

On his second expedition Columbus took with him fifteen hundred Spaniards in seventeen vessels with necessary supplies. And now, with strict commands from the crown to Christianize the Indians and always to treat them well, he brought the first missionaries to America. They were twelve in number, the Vicar-Apostolic, Father Bernard Boil, and eleven other priests. The Holy Sacrifice of the Mass was offered for the first time on the shores of America by Father Juan Perez. Columbus founded the city of Isabella on the island of Haiti and here in January (1494) the first church

was built and High Mass was therein solemnly celebrated on the sixth of January. Washington Irving says this pious mission was provided with all things necessary for the dignified performance of its functions, from the queen's own chapel. The city of Isabella, however, had a short existence. At the present day it is overgrown with forests in the midst of which are to be seen the ruins of the old church, the storehouse, and the residence of Columbus, all built of hewn stone.

26. Immediate Results of the Voyages of Columbus. Columbus gave to Spain and the world a new continent. The spirit



LINE OF DEMARCATION

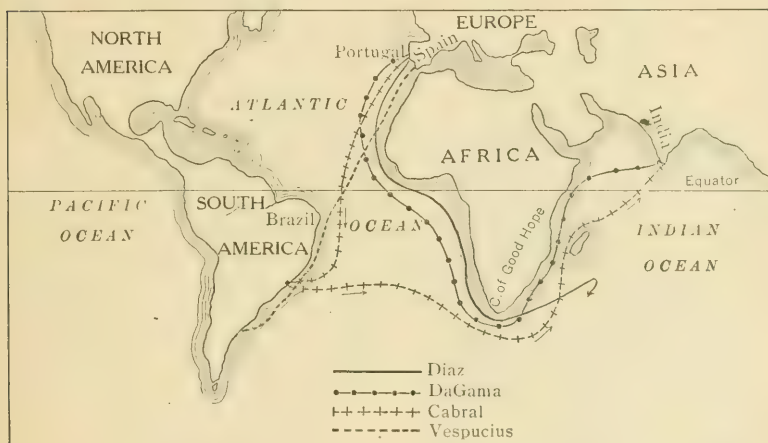
of discovery was intensified, and fresh life was infused throughout Europe. Such was the impulse which he gave to voyages of discovery, that, in less than forty-five years, the eastern coast of North and South America was tolerably well known; while, in the interior, great empires had been conquered.

27. Line of Demarcation. Spain and Portugal, the Catholic powers of Europe, fearing that they might

come into collision in the rapid progress of their discoveries, appealed by mutual consent, to the common father of the faithful as a freely chosen arbitrator, to mark out the limits of their prospective territories. The Pope, Alexander VI (1493), feeling that his powerful mediation might prevent war and bloodshed, willingly acceded to the proposal. He therefore fixed what is known as the Line of Demarcation, extending from the north pole to the south pole at a distance of one hundred leagues west of the Azores and the Cape Verde

Islands. He decreed that all the lands discovered west of this line were to belong to Spain, those east to Portugal. A treaty, between Spain and Portugal shortly after, fixed the line three hundred and seventy leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands, thus unwittingly apportioning Brazil to Portugal. This treaty, based on the papal partition, settled without a drop of blood a question which otherwise might have involved the two countries in a costly war.

28. The New Route to India. Vasco de Gama, a Portuguese, in 1497, sailed from Lisbon around the Cape of Good Hope to Hindustan, thus finding the long-searched-for route to India.



ROUTES AROUND AFRICA AND TO SOUTH AMERICA

Upon his return to Portugal, there was no doubt as to where he had been, for his ships were laden with the riches of the East. The goal was reached at last!

29. The Discovery of Brazil. The Amazon River was discovered (1500) by Vincente Pinzon, one of the companions of Columbus on his first voyage. About three months later, the Portuguese navigator, Pedro Cabral, on his way to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope, sighted the coast of Brazil.

30. The Origin of the Name America. Americus Vesputius, a Florentine, skilled in geography and astronomy, sailed first in the employ of Spain (1499) and afterwards in that of Portugal. He made several voyages including one which made known a large part of the Atlantic coast of South America. In 1507, a year after the death of Columbus, a German professor named Martin Waldseemüller, in a little treatise upon geography, commented upon the explorations of Vesputius and said, "But now these parts have been extensively explored and another fourth part has been discovered by Americus Vesputius, therefore I do not see what is rightly to hinder us from calling it Amerige or America; *i. e.*, the land of Americus, after its discoverer Americus." Eventually the name suggested by Waldseemüller was given to the whole western continent.

Europe, Asia, and Africa were considered three parts of the earth. Mela, a famous Spanish geographer, 30 A. D., believed in the existence of a great unvisited continent south of the Eurasian continent and the equator. He called it Opposite World or Fourth Part. It was believed that Columbus had reached Asia and that Americus had coasted along a great continent south of Asia, called Opposite World or Fourth Part which should be named after him. Hence, the naming of America was incidental and meant no injustice to Columbus.

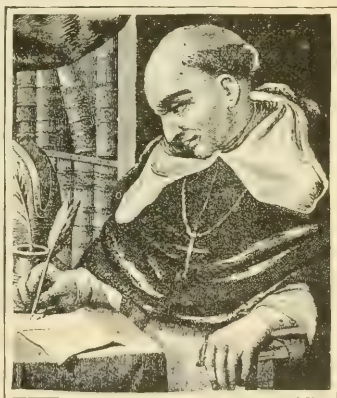
CHAPTER IV

THE SPANISH IN AMERICA

31. Columbus—Summary. Columbus discovered:

- (a) San Salvador, Cuba, and Haiti (1492);
- (b) Jamaica, Porto Rico, Windward Islands (1493-1498);
- (c) Trinidad Island, near the mouth of the Orinoco River, and South America (1498);
- (d) Central America and the Isthmus of Panama (1502).

32. Bartholomew Las Casas (1474-1566). This bishop of Chiapa in Mexico, a Dominican missionary among the Indians, was the first priest ordained in America. The title "Protector General of the Indians" has been bestowed upon him for the untiring zeal with which he served them for sixty years. Notwithstanding the purity of his life and the beauty of his ideas, his views of the Indians were so influenced by his love for them that he failed to fully understand their characters. His writings have influenced many prejudiced non-Catholics against Spain.



BARTHOLOMEW LAS CASAS

33. First City—First Spaniards in the United States. Ponce de Leon, having heard stories from the Indians of a land rich in gold and containing a fountain of youth, began a vain search for it during which he discovered Florida. As governor of Porto Rico he had founded (1511) San Juan, the oldest city on United States' territory. Two years later, on

Easter Sunday, he planted a cross and raised the Spanish flag on the territory which he named Florida (Flowery Easter).

34. Discovery of the Pacific Ocean. Balboa, a Spanish adventurer, looking from the crest of the Cordilleras, on the Isthmus of Panama, discovered (1513) the Pacific Ocean. He took possession of it and of all land bordering on it for Spain and named it the South Sea. Magellan later named it the



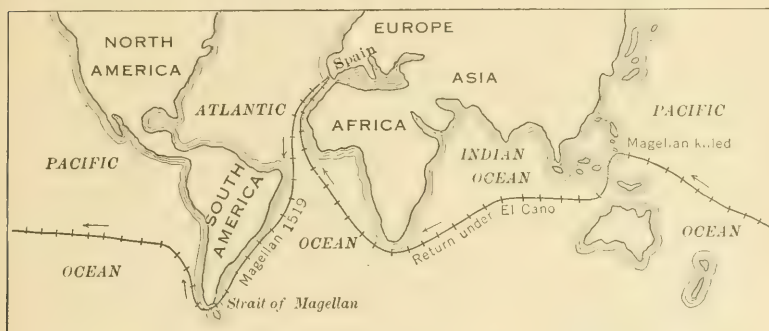
MEXICAN CALENDAR STONE

Pacific (peaceful) because he found it so much smoother than the Atlantic.

35. A Rich Empire in the Interior. Cordova (1517) sailed from Cuba across the Yucatan channel, and explored the north coast of Yucatan. Grijalva (1518) explored the southern coast of Mexico, and found that the Indians of this region were comparatively advanced in civilization and that they possessed considerable wealth. He heard of a rich city in the interior, which he believed to be one of those described by Marco Polo.

36. The Conquest of Mexico. In consequence of the exploits of Cordova and Grijalva, Cortez was sent (1519) by the governor of Cuba to explore Mexico. He built a fort on a favorable point which he called Vera Cruz, and then penetrated into the interior of the country. He overthrew the empire of the Aztec Indians and thus conquered Mexico, which, with its rich mines, became a Spanish province.

The Aztec Indians, a numerous and powerful people, had extended their sway over the adjacent tribes for three hundred years. They dressed in colored cotton cloth, were skilled in agriculture, and had constructed an excellent system of irrigation. They recorded events by means of hieroglyphics, and



MAGELLAN'S VOYAGE

possessed a high degree of skill in metal and feather work, weaving, and pottery. Their most celebrated ruler, Montezuma, was reigning when Cortez landed in Mexico.

37. Circumnavigation of the Globe. Magellan, a Portuguese in the service of Spain (1519), searching for a strait leading to the South Sea (Pacific Ocean), led a Spanish fleet across the Atlantic, coasted along South America to Tierra del Fuego, threaded the strait now bearing his name, and sailed out upon the great ocean discovered by Balboa. He next struck westward for thousands of miles and discovered the Philippine Islands, where he was killed in an encounter with the natives.

His companions made their way back to Spain around the Cape of Good Hope (1522). Thus was completed the first circumnavigation of the globe (1519-1522), the greatest voyage recorded in the annals of the sea.

38. Conquest of Peru (1531-1536). Francisco Pizarro conquered Peru, the rich Inca Empire, and founded the city of Lima. Although much slandered and maligned by historians, he now stands forth in the clear, true light of real history not only a man of remarkable military genius, but of great integrity and high moral purpose. The valiant conqueror was murdered by a Spanish conspirator in his palace at Lima. Just before his death he called upon his Redeemer, and tracing with his bloody finger a cross upon the floor, he kissed the sacred symbol and expired. His remains are interred in the Cathedral of Lima, which had been erected by him.

The Incas were the only shepherd Indians. They possessed great flocks of llamas, which, like little camels, served as valuable beasts of burden. They also supplied wool used in weaving coarse cloth which even the Spanish ladies of rank were proud to wear. Never before in the history of the world had so much gold and silver been discovered; vessels, utensils, images, and beads of pure gold, and great planks and bars of solid silver were found.

39. Exploration of the Atlantic Coast. Vasquez D'Ayllon and Estevan Gomez (1526) followed our coasts northward from Florida, taking notice of the rivers and bays. Somewhere on the coast between the mouth of the Cape Fear River and the James, they attempted to found a colony, which they called San Miguel. However, sickness soon broke out in the colony, D'Ayllon died, and the discouraged settlers returned to Haiti. In compliance with the wish of the Spanish sovereign Charles V, D'Ayllon was accompanied by two Dominican missionaries, who were the first to offer Divine worship within the limits of the present United States.

40. The Attempted Conquest of Florida. Narvaez (1528)



MAGELLAN
VESPUCIUS

BALBOA
SEBASTIAN CABOT

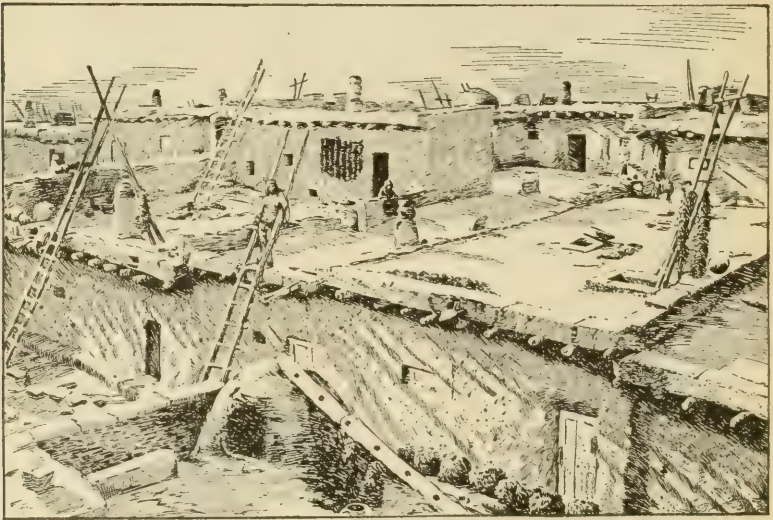
DISCOVERERS AND EXPLORERS

led from Cuba an unsuccessful expedition of four hundred men to conquer Florida. The company perished miserably; only four of the number survived to tell one of the saddest tales of history. Several Franciscan missionaries, one of whom, Father Juan Juarez, had been consecrated bishop of Florida, accompanied the unfortunate expedition and shared its fate. Cabeza de Vaca and three companions, the only survivors, were made slaves by the Indians, who regarded them as supernatural beings and hence spared their lives. In the course of eight years they wandered from Florida to the Gulf of California, over two thousand miles, suffering incredible dangers and tortures. At California Vaca found Spanish friends from Mexico. He was an educated man, and made use of what he had seen on his astounding journey, by writing two interesting books, which roused the earnest exploration and colonization of what is now the United States.

41. Exploration of New Mexico and Arizona. Friar Marcos, an Italian Franciscan, was sent (1539) by the viceroy of Mexico to ascertain the truth of Vaca's wonderful tales, and to find the "Seven Cities of Cibola." Inflamed with zeal for the conversion of the Indians he traveled from Mexico across the intervening desert and discovered New Mexico and Arizona. Directed by the Indians, through whose villages he passed, he came at last in sight of the Zuni pueblos. Understanding the name of the city he saw to be Cibola, he called the pueblos "The Seven Cities of Cibola." He planted a cross, took possession of the wild region which he called San Francisco, and claimed it for Spain. The Indians proved hostile and killed one of his companions. Friar Marcos learned what he could of the strange terraced towns of which he had had but a glimpse, and returned to Mexico with great news, which he told, free from misrepresentation and exaggeration.

42. Grand Cañon Discovered. Coronado, a young Spanish governor of one of the Mexican provinces, was sent (1540) by the governor of Mexico to conquer Cibola. With the tireless

Friar Marcos as guide, he led a company of one hundred and eleven men from the Gulf of California northward, but found Cibola to be only the pueblos of the Zuni Indians. Later one of his companions discovered the cañon of the Colorado River. Then turning eastward, Coronado pushed on as far as north-eastern Kansas. He found no wealthy cities, and no gold or silver, and returned (1542) to the city of Mexico. After the arrival of Coronado at Zuni, Friar Marcos returned to Mexico



ZUNI PUEBLOS

on account of his physical infirmities. His three Franciscan companions labored among the Indians and became the first martyrs to their faith in the United States.

43. Exploration of the Pacific Coast. While Coronado was still roaming over the desolate plains of Oklahoma and Kansas, his countryman, Hernando de Alarcon (1540-1541), explored the Colorado River to a great distance from the gulf; and Juan Cabrillo (1542) explored the Pacific coast as far north as Oregon.

44. Discovery of the Mississippi River. Fernando de Soto, governor of Cuba, landed at Tampa Bay, Florida, with nearly six hundred men, equipped for the conquest of a kingdom like that of Peru or Mexico. He found no treasures, only hardships and disappointments, but discovered (1541) the Mississippi River at the present site of Memphis. De Soto died in 1542 and was buried in the great river he had discovered. The Spaniards called the Mississippi the River of the Holy Ghost.



ROUTES OF EARLY SPANISH EXPLORERS

45. The Reformation—Effects in America. A religious change had taken place in Europe since the discovery of America. Western Europe had held one faith, the Roman Catholic, and all explorations in America up to this time had been made by Catholics. But in 1517 began what is called the "Protestant Reformation," which spread over many countries of Europe. Subsequent disorders, bloody persecutions, and devastating wars in all the countries infested by the new heresies drove many to seek refuge in America. First of these were the Huguenots, or French heretics, who settled in Carolina and Florida.

46. Oldest City in the United States Proper. Menendez (1565) founded St. Augustine, the oldest city within the present limits of the United States. He cruelly destroyed the little French Huguenot settlement, called Fort Carolina, which was located north of St. Augustine. This deed was revenged shortly afterwards by the French adventurer, De Gourgues, who, on his own responsibility, attacked St. Augustine and mercilessly slew the colonists.

47. Second Oldest City. Juan de Onate, established (1605) on the site of an Indian pueblo, Santa Fe (contracted from a Spanish name meaning Holy Faith of St. Francis), the second oldest white settlement in the United States. Espejo explored New Mexico (1582), but died before he could carry out his project of colonizing any part of it.

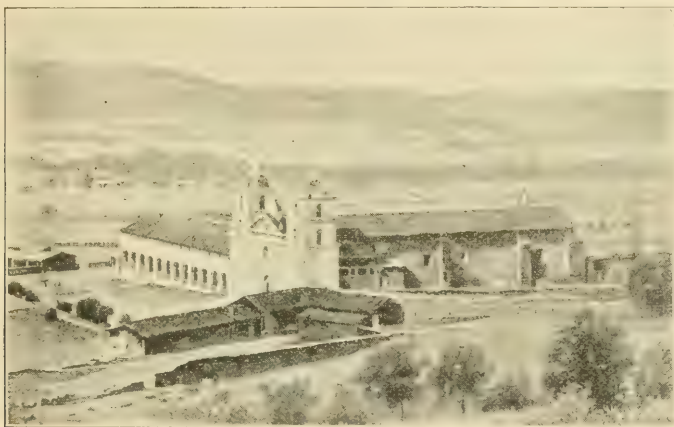
48. Spain and the Indians. The policy of Spain toward the Indians was one of humanity, justice, education, and moral suasion. Both explorers and conquerors were commanded by the Spanish authorities to convert the Indians and to protect them against ill treatment. In spite of the good intentions of the Spanish government, however, individual Spaniards broke the strict law of their country and treated the Indians with utmost cruelty.

49. Spanish Settlements and Claims. During the sixteenth century Spain established colonies in the West Indies, Mexico, and Central America, and on the west and north coasts of South America. St. Augustine and Santa Fe were her two settlements within the limits of the present United States.

Spain confined her explorations and settlements to the southern states, the Pacific coast, the West Indies, Mexico, Central America, and all of South America, except Brazil, which was claimed by Portugal. She based her claims on the rights of discovery, exploration, and conquest. Spanish occupancy in the New World began with the discovery of America by Columbus (1492). It continued with the numerous discoveries, explorations, and conquests of other Spanish pioneers. It

flourished in hundreds of Spanish towns and colonies. Since 1898, however, Spain holds no possessions in the New World.

50. Spain and the New World. To Spain is due the discovery of the New World; she it was who opened it to civilization. Her teachers taught the Spanish language and Christian faith to thousands of aborigines. There were Spanish schools for Indians in America as early as 1524. Many books in different Indian languages were printed by the Spanish in Mexico, where a printing press was set up as early as 1536. On the other hand, the only Indian book printed in America



SPANISH MISSION OF SANTA BARBARA (CALIFORNIA)

by the English, was John Eliot's Indian Bible. Spanish universities in America were ready to celebrate their first centennial when Harvard was founded (1636). A great proportion of the Spanish pioneers were college-bred men, and intelligence went hand in hand with heroism in the early settlement of the New World.

51. First Churches—First Convent. The first church in what is now the United States was founded at St. Augustine, Florida (1565); the second in New Mexico, near Santa Fe (1598); the third at Santa Fe (about 1606); and the fourth also at Santa

Fe (1627). The original walls of the church of San Miguel, which was built in Santa Fe (1636), are still standing, and they form a part of a church which is used today. The oldest convent in the United States is the historical institution of the Ursulines in New Orleans, established in 1727.

52. Missionary Contribution to History. As historians, the early Spanish missionaries have made a great contribution to the world's knowledge. They bequeathed to posterity huge historical volumes which have become the greatest and most indispensable aids to a study of the real history of America. Of the many writers belonging to the monastic orders who made valuable contributions to history, some of the most prominent are the Franciscans Motolinia, Sahagun, Mendieta, and Torquemada, and the Jesuit Clavijero.

53. The Pioneer Missionaries. The missionaries were the pioneers not only of the cross and religion but also of civilization. At the very time when the Reformation was tearing whole nations from the bosom of the Church, this Church, through her missionaries, reared her glorious banner of the cross in the very heart of new nations and new peoples. Amid untold hardships, with persevering zeal the pioneer missionaries preached the gospel to the Indians, until eventually half of the natives of the continent became converted to Christianity. These pious men lost no time in the good work of civilizing the Indians. They studied the language of the natives, won their confidence, and rooted out cannibalism. They gathered the dwellers of the wilderness into settled habitations, and taught them to read and write and to sow and reap. Thus, in the course of about a century and a half from the date of discovery, a free, happy, and innocent population of more than a million Indians was instructed and civilized by zealous missionaries.

The conversion of the Indians was accomplished chiefly by the religious orders, the first of which were the Benedictines and the Franciscans who arrived in the last decade of the

fifteenth century. These were followed by the Dominicans (1510) and the Jesuits (1549). All these orders had their examples of heroic virtue and glorious martyrdom. The Franciscans, however, were preëminently the Apostles of Spanish America.

54. Some Pioneer Martyrs. Father Juan Padilla, one of the companions of Friar Marcos, was the first martyr on the soil of Kansas. Father Louis Cancer and Father Tolosa, two Dominicans, suffered martyrdom immediately after setting foot on the soil of Florida (1549). The Jesuits (1566) entered Florida, where Father Martinez was slain, while Father Segura and five companions won their crown in what is now the state of Virginia. The Franciscans (1577) attempted anew the conversion of the natives of Florida and labored among them for many years. In 1597 Father Corpa was slain at the altar by the Indians. Subsequently all the missionary stations in Florida were destroyed.

CHAPTER V

THE ENGLISH IN AMERICA

55. First English Voyage to the New World. England was finally stirred to activity by the efforts of her rivals, Spain and Portugal, and by the belief that Columbus had found a new route to India. John Cabot, a native of Genoa and a former citizen of Venice, was a resident of Bristol, England, at the time when Columbus discovered America. Commissioned by Henry VII of England, in May, 1497, one year before Columbus discovered the mainland of South America, Cabot sailed west from England and discovered the continent of North America, on June 24th of the same year, probably at Labrador or Cape Breton Island. He, like Columbus, thought that the newly found land was a part of Cathay.

56. Second English Voyage. John Cabot made a second voyage, probably accompanied by his son, Sebastian, sailing southward as far as the region now called North Carolina. England later claimed the whole of the Atlantic seaboard on the ground of Cabot's discoveries, but for more than sixty years after they were made she showed no further interest in them. Cabot had twiced failed to find India with its wealth, but he planted the cross on the shores of the New World, as a Catholic priest accompanied the expeditions.

57. English Slave Trade. Like many other people of his time, Sir John Hawkins could see nothing wrong in slavery. He regarded negroes as property similar to domestic animals, and he actually felt proud of his share in opening up this shameless traffic in America. In 1562 he began kidnapping negroes from the west coast of Africa. He sold them in the West Indies, and from there carried valuable cargoes to England.



ROUTES OF EARLY DISCOVERERS

58. Second Circumnavigation of the Globe. Sir Francis Drake (1570-1573) made three plundering voyages to the West Indies, where he raided Spanish towns and despoiled Spanish vessels. From Panama he saw the Pacific Ocean and determined to sail on its waters. He set out from England in 1577 with a fleet of five vessels and sailed through the strait discovered by Magellan fifty years before. With only one ship, the *Pelican*, he followed the Pacific coast as far north as Oregon, plundering Spanish vessels and capturing stores of



THE SHIP IN WHICH DRAKE SAILED AROUND THE WORLD

gold and silver. He named the coast of California and Oregon New Albion. He next crossed the Pacific and passed the Philippine Islands, discovered by Magellan, and, making his way across the Indian Ocean, around the Cape of Good Hope, finally reached England in 1580.

59. In Search of a Northwest Passage. Frobisher made an unsuccessful attempt to go north of America to Asia. During his three voyages he explored a part of the Pacific Ocean and discovered a few bays and inlets on the coast of North America (1576-1579) among which was Frobisher Bay.

John Davis (1585) persistently attempted to push his way north of America to Asia. Like Frobisher, he left only his name on the map of that region of perpetual winter.

William Baffin (1616) explored Baffin Bay and discovered Lancaster and Smith's sounds, two northern arms of this bay.

60. Motives for Colonization — Attempts. In the colonization of America the English had various objects in view. They hoped to find gold and planned to make the American colonies stopping places on their voyages to Asia, as well as stations from which Spanish treasure-ships might be plundered.

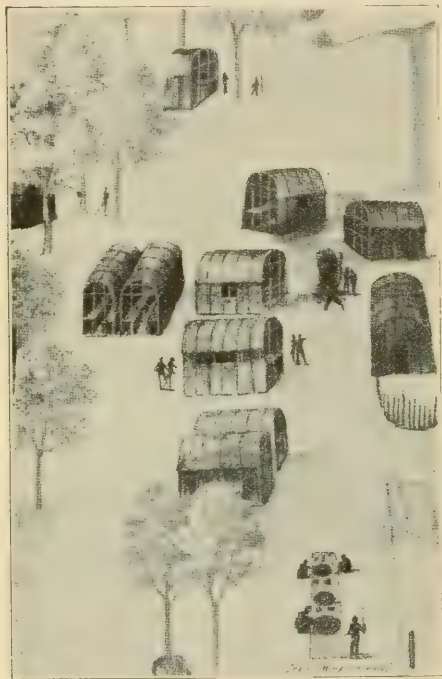
Sir Humphrey Gilbert made several ill-fated voyages to America, the last (1583) of which was an unsuccessful attempt to found a colony at Newfoundland. He was wrecked, with all his crew, in mid-ocean on the homeward voyage.

Although Sir Walter Raleigh, the half-brother of Gilbert, never actually visited the shores of the United States, he made an exploring expedition to the valley of the Orinoco and two unsuccessful attempts to plant colonies in Virginia. Raleigh planned these expeditions and furnished a large part of the funds to fit them out. In 1584 he sent out Amidas and Barlowe, who explored Albemarle and Pamlico sounds, and visited Roanoke Island. Upon their return to England, Queen Elizabeth called the country which they described Virginia, in honor of her own maiden state.

Raleigh next sent out (1585) a company of men under the leadership of Ralph Lane and Sir Richard Grenville. These established a colony on Roanoke Island. The colonists spent their time in searching for gold and for a western passage. Soon their provisions were exhausted and they went back to England with Sir Francis Drake, who was returning from one of his expeditions to the West Indies.

Raleigh sent another colony (1587) to Roanoke Island. This time the company consisted of men and women under the command of John White. Governor White soon returned to England in the interest of the colony. There he found the

attention of the whole kingdom directed toward the Invincible Armada, hence he was unable to revisit the island for some years. When at length he arrived at Roanoke Island in 1590 the colony had disappeared.



INDIAN VILLAGE. FROM A DRAWING BY
GOVERNOR WHITE

61. Results of Raleigh's Efforts. Though Raleigh was not successful in planting a colony in America, he lived long enough to see his plans realized in 1607, when England founded her first permanent settlement at Jamestown, Virginia.

Raleigh's American colonists introduced into England the white potato or "New Root," tobacco or "New Weed," and maize or "Indian Corn." The potato soon became the leading product in Ireland, and is now called the Irish potato. The smoking of tobacco is now world-wide. Its production constituted the chief source of wealth of

several of the early English colonies. The soil and climate of Europe proved unsuited to the growth of Indian corn, and America still leads the world as a corn-producing country.

62. The Defeat of the Invincible Armada. The crushing overthrow of the Invincible Armada established the sea power of England and marked the downfall of Spain's maritime su-

premacv. The Atlantic Ocean became alive with English cruisers and hundreds of Spanish ships fell victims to their attacks.

Spain, weakened by her conquest of the New World and by her long wars in Europe, never recovered from the blow England dealt her by the crushing overthrow of the Invincible Armada.

63. First Englishman in New England. Bartholomew Gosnold (1602) by sailing directly west, shortened the route across the Atlantic by more than one thousand five hundred miles. He explored the Massachusetts coast; named Cape Cod and Martha's Vineyard; and attempted to make a settlement at Cuttyhunk Island, at the entrance of Buzzard's Bay. When he returned to England he gave such glowing accounts of the country that the Plymouth and London Companies were formed for the purpose of encouraging colonization. Until Gosnold's expedition, no voyagers, except John Cabot, had undertaken the direct course across the Atlantic. His predecessors had followed the track of Columbus by way of the Canary Islands and the West Indies.

64. Cause of England's Failure at Colonization. All the attempts made by England during the sixteenth century to colonize America proved failures. This was due to the following causes:

- (a) the main object of most of the colonists was to search for gold;
- (b) the search for gold led to neglect of agriculture and to consequent starvation;
- (c) the Indians proved hostile;
- (d) the Invincible Armada so absorbed the interest of the mother country that she paid little attention to her starving American colonies.

65. The Virginia Company. This company was a commercial corporation somewhat like the stock companies of our day, composed of joint stockholders, many of whom were mer-

chants and adventurers. It was organized for the purpose of trade and settlement in the New World and was chartered by James I (1606). It consisted of two divisions, the London and the Plymouth Companies, named from the cities in England in which they were organized.

The king lived in London and to the London Company he gave the choicest land, which was the fertile region between 34° and 38° north latitude, extending one hundred miles inland. The grant of the Plymouth Company included the land between 41° and 45° north latitude, also extending one hundred miles inland.

The Plymouth Company attempted to plant its first settlement south of the Kennebec River in Maine (1607). This proved a complete failure, and the Company passed out of existence. A new corporation, however, was organized at Plymouth, England (1620), called the Council of Plymouth, with a grant of land similar to that of the old company. The first settlement in the territory granted to the Council of Plymouth was made by the Puritan Separatists at Plymouth, Massachusetts (1620). The first settlement made under the auspices of the London Company was at Jamestown, Virginia (1607).

66. English Claims. England established her colonies only along the Atlantic coast from Nova Scotia to Florida. However, she claimed territory from ocean to ocean, because of the discoveries of John Cabot, Sir Walter Raleigh, and Gosnold.

The English claims and occupancy in the New World began with the discovery of North America by John Cabot. They continued with the subsequent English enterprises and successful colonization along the Atlantic seaboard. England still occupies in the New World: Canada in North America, Belize in Central America, British Guiana in South America, the Bermuda Islands in the Atlantic, some of the islands of the West Indies—the Bahamas, Barbados, Jamaica, and most of the lesser Antilles.

CHAPTER VI

THE FRENCH IN AMERICA

67. Discovery of Newfoundland Fisheries. The great demand for fish in Europe early exhausted the neighboring fishing grounds. While England at first sought the codfisheries about Iceland, the hardy French fishermen, prompted by the reports of John Cabot, ventured farther west each year, until at last they came upon the immense shoals of codfish on the banks of Newfoundland, probably as early as 1504. They opened up a great fishing industry in these waters and traded with the Indians of the adjacent coasts of Labrador and Nova Scotia.

68. First French Voyage. Giovanni Verrazano, like Columbus and Cabot, was a native of Italy. Commissioned by Francis I, he set out in search of a passage to India (1524). Leaving Dieppe, France, on the frigate *Dolphin*, which was manned by trusty fishermen from the Breton ports, he sailed for the Madeira Islands and thence to the American coast where he landed after a stormy voyage of fifty-five days, near what is now called Cape Fear. Coasting northward to Nova Scotia, he landed at different points and discovered the mouth of the Hudson River and Narragansett Bay. Owing to wars and political contentions in Europe, which arose from the Protestant reformation, ten years elapsed before another expedition could be sent out from France.

69. Discovery of the St. Lawrence. James Cartier, a prominent French mariner, made three voyages (1534-1541) to the New World under the authority of Francis I. On his first voyage he sailed through Belle Isle Strait and entered the estuary of the St. Lawrence River, which he named in honor of the saint of the day. He planted the cross and the French

banner on the shores of the gulf. On his second voyage he ascended the St. Lawrence, saw the great rock on which Quebec now stands, and pushed on to an Iroquois village which he called Montreal. His third expedition was fitted out by Sieur Roberval for the purpose of planting a colony at the present site of Quebec, but the attempt proved a failure.



MAP ILLUSTRATING EUROPEAN IDEA OF AMERICA IN 1548

Though Cartier failed in his original object to find a western route to India and to discover mines of precious metal, and also in his efforts to plant an American colony, he nevertheless procured valuable information concerning the country and its people, and discovered and explored the St. Lawrence River and Gulf.

70. French Huguenots in the South. France became so occupied with her wars that she gave but little thought to America for the next half-century, attempting only the mem-

orable Huguenot settlements in Carolina and Florida. Gaspard Coligny, the leader of the French Huguenots, planned to establish a Huguenot state in America, and under his auspices Jean Ribault (1562) made an unsuccessful attempt to plant a settlement on the coast of South Carolina. He called the harbor Port Royal and the newly constructed fortress Fort Carolina in honor of the reigning French sovereign, Charles IX. Laudonniere (1564), the leader of the second colonizing expedition organized by Coligny, built a second Fort Carolina on the St. John's River farther south. This was the settlement which was broken up and destroyed by Menendez, the founder of St. Augustine. France made no further attempt to colonize that section of the country.

71. French Settlements. Sieur de Monts was granted by Henry IV a monopoly of the fur trade between the present site of Philadelphia and Cape Breton Island (40° - 46°), a region called Acadia, which name in later years was restricted to what is now known as Nova Scotia. Under De Monts (1605) Port Royal, now Annapolis, Nova Scotia, was founded. Two years later the colony was abandoned but was reoccupied (1610) and became a central station for the Jesuit missionaries among the Indians. De Monts was a Protestant, but the royal patent authorizing his enterprise provided that the natives be taught the Catholic faith.

72. First Permanent French Settlement. Samuel de Champlain was the ruling spirit and prominent figure in French exploration and early colonization, and may justly be called the "Founder of Canada." He saw the possibility of great wealth to be gained from the fur trade and the discovery of gold and piously hoped to convert the Indians to the Catholic faith. The illustrious Champlain established (1608) a trading colony at Quebec, the first permanent French settlement in America.

73. Champlain's Explorations—His Encounter with the Iroquois. Champlain explored and described our northeast

coast, discovered the beautiful Lake Champlain (1609) and pushing into the interior, was the first white man to see Lakes Ontario and Huron. He made friends with the neighboring Huron and Algonquin Indians, who lived in bitter enmity with the Iroquois Nations located in New York and about Lake Erie.

He (1609) accompanied an expedition of Hurons and Algonquins against the Mohawks, an eastern tribe of the Five Nations, and defeated the hostile Indians near the present site of Crown Point. The Iroquois were the bravest, most powerful, and most bloodthirsty of the North American Indians. This victory of the French over the Iroquois had two far-reaching effects:

- (a) it made the Iroquois the deadly enemies of the French. This kept the latter from occupying New York and the Hudson Valley, and, consequently, obliged them to extend their settlements westward;
- (b) it rendered the Iroquois friendly to the Dutch and English, with whom they established a profitable fur trade.

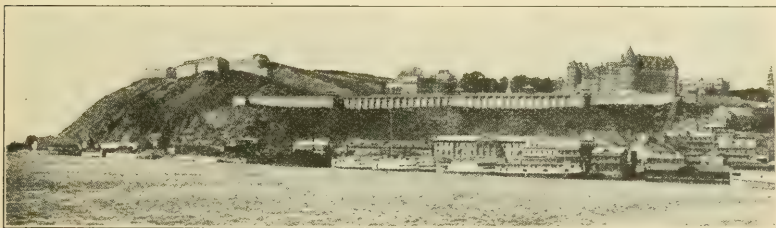
74. Motives Prompting French Exploration and Colonization. The early French pioneers sought:

- (a) a western passage to India;
- (b) mines of precious metal;
- (c) the industries afforded by the fish and fur trade;
- (d) the extension of French dominion;
- (e) especially and above all, did they seek the conversion of the Indian. With the French, traffic was second to religion. The illustrious founder of Canada, Champlain, writes, "The salvation of a single soul is worth more than the conquest of an empire."

75. The First Missionaries in Quebec. Three Franciscan priests and one lay brother came to Canada at the invitation of Champlain, whose first care was to provide apostolic men for the neighboring Indian tribes. The Jesuits joined the Franciscans (1625) and the two orders labored conjointly for the conversion of the American Red Man. A little convent and

chapel were erected at Quebec, and Holy Mass was for the first time celebrated on the banks of the mighty St. Lawrence, June 25th, 1615. This was the beginning of Catholicity in Canada. During a century and a half the church of Quebec was the only center of faith (the Catholic colony of Maryland excepted) in the immense region extending from Hudson Bay to the Gulf of Mexico.

76. The French Win the Indians. The French knew how to win the stern and silent Indians of the north. They formed alliances and traded with the tribes in the neighborhood. Their missionaries came without weapons, shared the life of the Indians, and surpassed them in endurance. Consequently the savages respected the Frenchmen and submitted to their authority and many of them accepted their faith. Parkman



QUEBEC AS IT IS TODAY

says, "France aimed to subdue, not by the sword but by the cross. She invaded only to convert, to civilize, and to embrace the natives among her children."

77. Prosperity of Quebec. Champlain, governor of Canada, returned (1633) to Quebec which had for a short time been in the hands of the English. From now on the colony advanced with rapid strides on the road to prosperity. Immigrants flowed in, the Jesuits resumed the work commenced in 1625, and Quebec became the flourishing center from which missionaries went forth to discovery, to spiritual conquest, or to martyrdom.

Bancroft writes: "Not a cape was turned or a river entered, but a Jesuit led the way."

78. Exploration of the Mississippi. Count Frontenac, an able governor of New France (1672-1681; 1689-1698), used his influence to advance the exploration of the waterways of the Mississippi Valley and to effect peace with the Iroquois Indians.

Jean Nicolet, commissioned by Champlain to find a waterway to the Pacific, ascended the Ottawa River, and passing through lakes Huron and Michigan to Green Bay, began the explora-



FRENCH EXPLORERS AND THE INDIANS

tions which were eventually followed by Father Marquette and Louis Joliet.

Father Marquette, a Jesuit missionary, and Joliet, a French explorer and fur trader, were commissioned by Frontenac to search for a passage to the South Sea.

Joliet started from Quebec (1673) and, joined by Father Marquette at Mackinac, and several other Frenchmen, made his way through Green Bay, up the Fox River, and down the beautiful Wisconsin and the majestic Mississippi as far as the Arkansas River. On their way down the Mississippi, they disembarked for a time at the mouth of the Des Moines River,

and were thus the first white men in the state of Iowa. They were joyfully welcomed by the Illinois Indians, a mild, dignified, and hospitable race. This event is well described in the following extract from Longfellow's *Hiawatha*:

From the farthest realms of morning
Came the Black-Robe chief, the Prophet,
He the Priest of Prayer, the Pale-face,
With his guides and his companions.
Then the joyous Hiawatha
Cried aloud and spoke in this wise:
"Beautiful is the sun, O strangers,
When you come so far to see us!
All our town in peace awaits you,
All our doors stand open for you;
You shall enter all our wigwams,
For the heart's right hand we give you."
And the Black-Robe chief made answer:
"Peace be with you Hiawatha,
Peace be with you and your people,
Peace of prayer, and peace of pardon,
Peace of Christ and joy of Mary!"
All the warriors of the nation
Came to bid the strangers welcome,
"It is well," they said, "O brothers,
That you come so far to see us!"
Then the Black-Robe chief, the Prophet,
Told them of the Virgin Mary,
And her blessed Son, the Saviour.
And the chiefs made answer saying:
"We have listened to your message,
We have heard your words of wisdom,
We will think on what you tell us.
It is well for us, O brothers,
That you come so far to see us."

At the mouth of the Arkansas they became convinced that the river would not carry them to the Pacific, and they retraced their course by way of the Illinois. After spending some time at the mission of St. Francis Xavier, Green Bay, Joliet returned to Quebec to report to Frontenac.

The humble and saintly Father Marquette preached the gospel to the Miamis, who dwelt in the north of Illinois, around the present site of Chicago. Father Marquette named the Mississippi (so-called by the Indians) the river of the Immaculate Conception.

79. Results of the Discovery of the Mississippi. Father Marquette, by his extraordinary voyage, revealed to the world the wonderful fact that the St. Lawrence communicates with the Gulf of Mexico by an almost uninterrupted chain of lakes and rivers. The whole Mississippi Valley, the richest, most fertile and accessible part of North America, was open to France.

80. Further Explorations. Robert La Salle, second only to Champlain among the French explorers, a sincere Catholic, a man of strong mind and iron will, set out from Canada to



TADOUSAC, CANADA. FATHER MARQUETTE LIVED HERE MANY YEARS

complete the work of Father Marquette and Joliet. His aims were twofold:

- (a) to establish military and trade centers at various points;
- (b) to plant a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi River.

The accomplishment of these two objects, would put within French control the valuable fur trade of the interior. It would also give them a waterway on which the furs could be transported more conveniently than on the St. Lawrence, which is frozen for a considerable part of the year.

La Salle, having discovered the Ohio River (1669), established

(1679) Fort Frontenac on Lake Ontario where Kingston now stands, and from here he made a series of explorations which lasted nearly ten years. He built and launched on the Niagara River, the *Griffin*, which was the first vessel to sail upon the waters of the Great Lakes. Accompanied by a small band including three Franciscan priests, he navigated lakes Erie, St. Clair, Huron, and Michigan. From Lake Michigan he made his way to the Illinois River where he established a fort near the present site of Peoria.

In 1682 La Salle floated down the Mississippi to its mouth, planted the cross and took possession of the great central valley of the continent for France, naming it Louisiana in honor of Louis XIV. Two years later he attempted to plant a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi, but failing to find the river, he landed instead on the shores of Texas. While trying to reach Canada to secure aid, La Salle was treacherously killed by one of his company.

Father Hennepin, a Franciscan in La Salle's company, discovered Niagara Falls. Exploring the northern Mississippi, he ascended as far as the present site of St. Paul, where he discovered and named the Falls of St. Anthony of Padua. On this expedition, he was captured by the Sioux Indians, from whom he was rescued by Du Lhut, the French fur trader (1679).

81. French Posts. To make good their claims to the Mississippi Valley, the French built a chain of forts from Canada to the Gulf of Mexico, about sixty in all—among them Detroit (1686), Duluth (1701), and Vincennes (1702). They also planted several settlements on the gulf itself—Biloxi (1699), Mobile (1700), and New Orleans (1718).

82. French Territory. France claimed:

- (a) Acadia (comprising what is now New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and a part of Maine) by virtue of the explorations of Verrazano and De Monts;
- (b) the St. Lawrence and Great Lake basins by virtue of the explorations of Cartier and Champlain;

(c) the basin of the Mississippi River by virtue of the explorations of Joliet, Fathers Marquette and Hennepin, and La Salle.

The English also laid claim to this region because of the previous discovery by John Cabot, hence these rival claims necessarily became the cause of future contention and war.

83. French Claims. The French claims in the New World began with the exploring voyage of Verrazano (1524). They were strengthened by the subsequent French explorations, and the numerous posts and settlements established along the St. Lawrence, Great Lakes, and the Mississippi, and ended with the treaty of Paris, 1763, which was the outcome of the French and Indian war. France still holds in the New World: French Guiana in South America, three of the islands of the West Indies—Martinique, St. Bartholomew, Guadeloupe—and two small islands south of Newfoundland, Miquelon, and St. Pierre.

84. The Missionary Pioneers. The Catholic missionaries in French America, like those in Spanish America, were the pioneers of the cross, of exploration, of colonization, and of civilization. The cross always accompanied, and sometimes even preceded, the banner of earthly conquest. With sublime faith and patience the intrepid Franciscan and Jesuit missionaries pressed their toilsome way to the widely-spread Indian tribes of Canada, Maine, New York, Ohio, Michigan, Illinois, Minnesota, and Iowa; never pausing in spite of snows and frost and pathless wilds and waters, till Catholicity had made the circuit of New France from the estuary of the St. Lawrence to the mouth of the Mississippi.

While the Franciscans were the leading evangelizers of the Indians in the South, the Jesuits were preëminently the Apostles of the North.

85. Father Druillettes—Father Rasle. Father Druillettes, S. J. (1646), the Apostle of the Hurons, penetrated the forests lying between the St. Lawrence and the Kennebec Rivers, and completely won the hearts of the Abnakis. He joined Fathers

Marquette, Allouez, and Dablon, who were laboring in northern Wisconsin and Michigan (1669).

Father Rasle, S. J., with seven of his Abnaki chiefs, was killed (1724) at the mission cross by a band of English and their allied pagan Mohawks who bore down upon the little Christian Abnaki village while most of the warriors were absent. After the murder of Father Rasle the Puritans would not allow a Catholic priest to live among the Abnakis. Nevertheless, these Indians remained firm in their faith. Every Sunday, before the priestless altars, the words of the Mass were said, vespers were chanted, and parents baptized their children. The Abnakis fought in the army of Washington beside their English persecutors, and were then distinguished for their bravery, just as their descendants of today are distinguished for their tried and ardent faith.

86. Father James Marquette, S. J. (1637-1675). Father Marquette was the first to labor among the Ottawas on the south shore of Lake Superior, Sault Ste. Marie and La Point being the centers of his work. He next preached to the Hurons of Mackinac. After his exploration of the Mississippi, he returned to the gentle Illini (Illinois and Iowa) whom he had met on his way down the river, and founded a mission at Kaskaskia. Conscious that death was near, he attempted to return to Mackinac; but expired in the thirty-eighth year of his life (1675), on the shores of a small river of Michigan which bears his name. He was buried near where he died, but twelve years later his body was exhumed and interred beneath the church at Mackinac. The Indians frequently came to pray at his tomb, and French mariners never failed to invoke Father Marquette when they were in peril on Lake Michigan.

87. Father Isaac Jogues (1607-1646). Father Jogues entered the Jesuit novitiate at Paris at the age of seventeen and immediately after his ordination (1636), at his own request, was sent to the Huron missions in Canada. He visited the Chippewa Indians and later was captured by the Mohawks who

carried him to New York, where he was subjected to all the horrors of Indian cruelty—was made to run the gauntlet three times; his finger nails were torn out; his hands and feet dislocated and mutilated, and his left thumb cut off. He was held captive by the Indians for fifteen months. Concerning the captivity of Father Jogues, Bancroft writes: “Roaming through

the stately forests of the Mohawk Valley, he wrote the name of Jesus on the bark of the trees, graved the cross, and entered into possession of these regions in the name of God, often lifting up his voice in a solitary chant.” Through the kindness of the Dutch Governor Kieft, Father Jogues escaped and from New York was conveyed to France. He was everywhere received with



FATHER ISAAC JOGUES

honor, and, notwithstanding his mutilated hands, Pope Urban VIII granted him special permission to read Holy Mass, saying: “It would be wrong to prevent the martyr of Christ from drinking the Blood of Christ.” His heart, however, was with the Indians, and he boarded the first vessel that left France for America. Returning to Canada and once more entering New York, the scene of his former suffering, he received the long-coveted crown of martyrdom at the hands of the Mohawks (1646).

88. Fathers Breboeuf and Lallemand. Father Breboeuf, S. J. (1593-1649), styled by Spalding the “Xavier of the Hurons,” came to the Canadian missions (1625). He soon mastered the difficult Huron language and became “all to all, in order to gain all to Christ.”

Father Gabriel Lallemand, S. J. (1610-1649), the “Aloysius of the Huron Mission,” called by Bancroft the “Gentle

Lallemand," was a co-laborer of Father Breboeuf. Both of these illustrious missionaries were seized by the Iroquois and cruelly tortured. Father Breboeuf suffered for nearly three hours; Father Lallemand much longer. Spalding, speaking of the death of Lallemand and Breboeuf, says : "The former was a lamb, the latter a lion. The lion and the lamb were immolated together for their love of God and of their neighbor. Yet did the lamb die much more slowly than the lion."

89. Father Daniel—Father Rene Menard—Father Claude Allouez. Father Daniel, S. J. (1648), while employed in missionary labors among the Hurons, was killed at the foot of the altar during an Iroquois massacre.

Father Rene Menard, S. J., a survivor of the Huron missions and former companion of Fathers Jogues and Breboeuf, labored among the Ottawas, and after incredible hardships and wanderings, founded a mission on Keweenaw Bay, northern Michigan. He was lost in the forests and never again heard from (1661).

Father Claude Allouez, S. J., undismayed by the fate of Father Menard, carried the gospel through what is now Wisconsin and northern Michigan, and established a mission at Green Bay. He was joined by Fathers Marquette and Dablon, and the three founded (1669) St. Mary's, the oldest city in Michigan. They employed themselves in evangelizing the vast regions extending from Green Bay to the head of Lake Superior.

90. Noted Indian Converts. Most of the early missionaries in French America met a violent death. Their noble ranks, thinned by hardships, fierce tortures, and agonizing deaths, were filled anew by great souls who pressed forward to share in the toil and dangers of the missionaries. Step by step, vast numbers from every tribe were won over for Christ and civilization. Even the fierce Iroquois finally yielded to the benign influences of faith. Foremost among them was Garacontie, the great chief of the Five Nations, who was baptized by Bishop

Laval in the Cathedral of Quebec and became the bulwark of Christianity. At his baptism were present, the French governor as sponsor, and other Frenchmen of noble rank, lordly sachems from the Hurons on Lake Huron, gentle Mohegan chiefs from the banks of the Hudson, faithful Abnakis from the valley of the St. Lawrence, stately Chippewas from Lake Superior, and noble Iroquois from every tribe in New York.

Another notable Indian convert was the great Mohawk chief, Kryn. Coming under the influence of the Christian village of La Prairie, he soon became a devout Catholic. When his tribe would not listen to his pleadings that they become worshipers of the true God, he raised his wild war cry for the last time in the streets of the village, and, gathering a number of devoted followers, knelt with them amid the graves of his fathers and uttered a fervent prayer for his nation. Then he arose, and, with streaming eyes, led his followers to the village of La Prairie on the St. Lawrence.



LILY OF THE MOHAWKS

Catherine Tekawitha, styled the "Lily of the Mohawks," was born

in New York on the very soil drenched with the blood of Father Jogues. Becoming an orphan at an early age, she lived with an uncle who was hostile toward the Christians. She was secretly baptized and henceforward gave herself entirely to God, devoting her time to prayer, to the practice of austerities and kindly deeds. She fled from her uncle's rage to La Prairie, where, after a chaste, austere, and saintly life, she died as she had lived, with the holy names of Jesus

and Mary upon her lips. Catherine's grave became an object of veneration where the rich and poor of every race came and knelt to pay her homage. This devotion, rewarded by God with miraculous cures, still subsists, and a large cross marks the spot where repose the remains of the "Lily of the Mohawks."

91. The Missionaries, the Pioneers of Discovery, Exploration, and Civilization. The missionaries were the first white men to sail on our great rivers and lakes, to admire our mighty



THE MISSIONARY'S BLESSING

cataracts and rapids, to penetrate and traverse our majestic forests.

A Jesuit discovered the salt springs of New York (Father Le Moyne, 1654); a Franciscan drew attention to the oil springs of Pennsylvania (Father de la Roche, 1627); a Jesuit lay brother first worked the copper mines on Lake Superior; the first sugar cane was raised by Jesuits in New Orleans. The missionaries introduced the cultivation of wheat and the use of the plow. They founded the first schools and the first college (Quebec, 1635) and set up the first printing press (Father Richard) in the North.

The pioneer missionaries wrote descriptions of all they had seen and experienced and sent them to the superior in France. This remarkable series of letters has been collected into seventy-five volumes called the "Jesuit Relations" (1610-1691) of which there is an English translation edited by Reuben G. Thwaites.

92. First Nuns in New France. The hospital nuns from Dieppe opened a public hospital at Quebec. They received into it not only the sufferers among the emigrants, but the maimed, the sick, and the blind from the numerous tribes between the Kennebec and the St. Lawrence. The Ursuline nuns came to Quebec (1639) and established a convent into which they received the dusky daughters of the wilderness for religious and secular instruction.

93. Devotion to the Blessed Virgin Mary in North America. The early Spanish explorers came with the banner of Mary; the name of the ship of Columbus was St. Mary; the earliest shrines were reared under her invocation; bay and river and mountain received the hallowed name; the first city on the mainland that became a bishop's see was St. Mary's. The ardent sons of France chose the icy realms of Canada to plant the Lilies of France, but its rigors could not chill devotion to Mary. Montreal Island saw a city rise with the name of Ville Marie. As the missionaries made their way westward, the worship of St. Mary marked their path till the great Mississippi, the River of the Immaculate Conception, bore them down toward those Spanish realms where every officer swore to defend the Immaculate Conception.

CHAPTER VII

THE DUTCH IN AMERICA

94. Dutch Maritime Enterprise. While Spain, England, and France were exploring and colonizing America, Holland was occupied with trade and commerce. The Dutch were the merchants for all the neighboring countries. They sent out fleets to the East Indies whence they brought back the products of the tropics. Various trading companies had been organized for this purpose, the most important of which was the Dutch East India Company (1602). This company sent its navigators not only around the Cape of Good Hope, but also along the routes of Magellan and Drake across the Pacific to



HUDSON'S SHIP, THE HALF MOON

Australasia. They endeavored, moreover, to shorten these routes to Asia by sailing north of Europe.

Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the service of Holland (1609) was sent by the Dutch East India Company to search for a northern route around Europe. He sailed from Amsterdam in a vessel called the *Half Moon*. Being stopped by the ice, he turned westward and, after a voyage of four months, reached America. Sailing along the coast, he entered the present New York harbor, where he believed that he had found the passage through America to the Pacific. He sailed up the

river which now bears his name, as far as the site of Albany, and made friends with the Iroquois. At almost the same time, Champlain, not a hundred miles away, fought an eventful battle with that powerful Indian nation.

95. Results of Hudson's Voyage. Hudson's report that the new country abounded in fur-bearing animals created interest in the commercial cities of Holland. Subsequently trading posts were established at the present sites of New York (New Amsterdam) and Albany (Fort Orange) as early as 1613-1614.



THE TRADING POST AT NEW AMSTERDAM

Later the Dutch West India Company was formed for the purpose of trade and colonization in America. Hudson, who had hoped to reach China, considered his voyage a failure and determined to attempt to go north of America to Asia. This time, in the service of England (1610), he passed through the entire length of what is now Hudson Strait and entered the broad waters of Hudson Bay, where his crew, frightened by the Arctic cold and ice, rose in mutiny. They set their great captain and his seven-year-old son adrift in an open boat on the vast waters of Hudson Bay, leaving them there to perish.

96. Dutch Motives and Claims. The Dutch were attracted to the American shores principally by the promising trade in

furs with the Indians, and also by the prospects of successful colonization. The Dutch laid claim to the land extending between the Delaware and Connecticut rivers by right of Hudson's explorations. They called this region New Netherland.

97. Dutch Claims. The Dutch claims in the New World began with the exploration of Henry Hudson (1609). They continued with the fur trading voyages and subsequent settlements in the present state of New York, and ended when, in 1674, New Netherland was permanently surrendered to the English. Holland still holds in the New World: Dutch Guiana in South America, and some of the West Indies—Curacao and St. Eustatius.

CHRONOLOGICAL REVIEW

874-1492

- 874. Northmen discover Iceland.
- 984. Northmen discover Greenland.
- 1002. Leif Ericson discovers America and establishes a Norse colony in Vinland.
- 1095. The Crusades begin.
- 1295. Marco Polo returns from China.
- 1435. Columbus is born.
- 1440. Printing is invented by Gutenberg at Strassburg.
- 1487. Bartholomew Diaz discovers the Cape of Good Hope.

1492-1519

Ferdinand and Isabella are king and queen of Spain.

Henry VII, king of England.

All civilized Europe is Catholic.

- 1492. (Aug. 3) Columbus sails from Spain.
- 1492. (Oct. 12) Columbus discovers America—explores San Salvador, Cuba, Haiti.
- 1493. Columbus makes a second voyage—discovers Jamaica, Porto Rico, Windward Islands, and establishes a Spanish colony at Isabella, Haiti.
- 1493. Father Juan Perez offers the first Holy Sacrifice of the Mass in America at Isabella, Haiti.
- 1493. Pope Alexander VI establishes the line of Demarcation.
- 1494. The first Catholic church is founded at Isabella, Haiti.
- 1497. Cabot discovers North America.
- 1497. Vasco da Gama doubles the Cape of Good Hope and finds a new route to India.
- 1498. Columbus makes his third voyage—discovers Trinidad Island and the continent of South America.

- 1498. Cabot makes his second voyage and explores part of the North American coast.
- 1500. Cabral discovers Brazil and claims it for Portugal.
- 1500. Americus Vespuceius explores the northeastern coast of South America.
- 1502. Columbus makes his fourth voyage—discovers Central America and the Isthmus of Panama; he seeks a passage to the Indian Ocean at the Isthmus of Panama.
- 1502. Las Casas comes to America.
- 1504. Isabella dies. (Nov. 26.)
- 1504. French fishermen fish for cod on the banks of Newfoundland.
- 1506. Columbus dies. (Ascension day, May 20).
- 1509. Henry VIII of England commences his reign.
- 1511. Ponce de Leon founds San Juan, Porto Rico.
- 1513. Ponce de Leon discovers and claims the peninsula of Florida for Spain.
- 1513. Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean and claims it and the land bordering on it for Spain.

1519-1558

Emperor Charles V, ruler of Germany, Austria, Spain, and Spanish America.

King Henry VIII, King Edward VI, and Queen Mary reign in England.

King Francis I and Henry II rule in France.

Luther apostatizes. Henry VIII rejects the authority of the pope and establishes a state church. Calvin founds Calvinism. Many people leave the Roman Catholic Church and become Protestants.

- 1519. Cortez conquers Mexico.
- 1519-1522. Magellan circumnavigates the globe.
- 1524. Verrazano coasts the American shore from Cape Fear to Nova Scotia and claims it for France.
- 1526. D'Ayllon attempts to found a colony in Virginia.

1528. Narvaez leads an unsuccessful expedition to conquer Florida. Bishop Juarez and his companions perish.
- 1528-1536. De Vaca and his companions cross the continent.
- 1531-1536. Pizarro conquers Peru.
- 1534-1535. Cartier explores the gulf and river of St. Lawrence as far as the site of the present Montreal.
1536. The bishop of Mexico sets up the first printing press in the New World.
1539. Friar Marcos penetrates New Mexico and discovers the Zuni pueblos.
- 1539-1542. De Soto sets out for Florida in search of a kingdom of gold, discovers the Mississippi River, 1541; dies, and is buried in the waters of the river he discovered.
- 1540-1542. Coronado, 1540, leads an expedition to conquer Cibola, which is found to be the pueblos of the Zuni Indians. He traverses the present New Mexico, discovering the Colorado River and cañon and entering the lands of Colorado and Kansas in search of gold.
- 1540-1541. Alarcon explores the Colorado River a great distance from the gulf.
1542. Cabrillo explores the western coast of America as far north as Oregon.
1549. Fathers Tolosa and Cancer receive the crown of martyrdom in Florida—the first martyrs within the limits of the present United States.

1558-1607

Queen Elizabeth and James I reign in England.

Francis II, Charles IX, Henry III, and Henry IV reign in France.

Philip II and Philip III reign in Spain.

The principal countries of Europe are involved in religious and political wars.

1562. French Huguenots under Ribault make an unsuccessful attempt to plant a settlement at Port Royal, South Carolina.

- 1562. John Hawkins begins his slaving voyages.
- 1564. The Huguenots under Laudonniere plant a colony in Florida.
- 1565. Menendez founds St. Augustine, the oldest city in the United States proper.
- 1570-1573. Father Segura and companions win the crown of martyrdom in what is now Virginia.
- 1570-1573. Sir Francis Drake makes three plundering voyages to the West Indies.
- 1576. Martin Frobisher attempts to go north of America to Asia.
- 1577-1580. Sir Francis Drake circumnavigates the globe.
- 1582. Espejo explores New Mexico.
- 1583. Sir Humphrey Gilbert makes an unsuccessful voyage to America. He attempts to plant a colony but fails and is shipwrecked on his homeward voyage.
- 1584-1587. Sir Walter Raleigh fits out and sends three expeditions to the New World; he gives glowing accounts of the country and its people; the last two are unsuccessful at colonization.
- 1585. John Davis attempts to go north of America to Asia.
- 1597. Father Corpa and companions are martyred in Florida.
- 1602. Gosnold explores Massachusetts, names Cape Cod and Martha's Vineyard, and shortens the route across the Atlantic by more than 1500 miles.
- 1603. Champlain, with a company of fur traders, enters the St. Lawrence—explores the shores of Nova Scotia.
- 1605. Onate founds Santa Fe, New Mexico, the second oldest city in the United States proper.
- 1605-1610. Port Royal is founded by De Monts, abandoned two years later, and is reoccupied, 1610.
- 1606. The London and Plymouth Companies are chartered.
- 1607. The first permanent English settlement is planted under Captain Newport at Jamestown, Virginia.

PERIOD OF COLONIZATION

CHAPTER VIII

THE SOUTHERN GROUP OF COLONIES

THE SETTLEMENT OF VIRGINIA

98. Extent. The Period of Colonization extends from the settlement of Virginia (1607) to the beginning of the Revolutionary War (1775). During this time the early settlements scattered along the Atlantic coast grew into thirteen flourishing colonies, subject to Great Britain.

99. Motives and Causes Leading to Colonization. The principal motives and causes prompting European colonization in America were:

- (a) the desire for an extensive empire;
- (b) love of adventure;
- (c) desire for wealth and fame;
- (d) overpopulation in parts of Europe;
- (e) misgovernment in many European nations;
- (f) a missionary spirit and a desire for religious freedom.

100. Early English Colonizing Efforts. As the repeated attempts of the English at American colonization under Raleigh and Gosnold proved unsuccessful, England had not permanently occupied any part of the American continent when the sixteenth century closed. In 1606, however, the great double-headed Virginia Company was formed for the purpose of encouraging colonization.

101. The Three Groups of Colonies. The thirteen original colonies may be divided into three groups: the Southern, centering in Virginia; the Northern, centering in Massachusetts; and the Middle, with New York as the center. The colonies

may be thus divided not only because of their geographical location, but also because the groups differed from each other in motives, government, religion, enterprise, and spirit. Each group had its own peculiar characteristics and beliefs in regard to church, government, and education.

102. The Founding of Jamestown. The first permanent English colony in America was founded in 1607, at Jamestown, Virginia, by an expedition sent out by the London Company, under the leadership of Christopher Newport. This colony was the beginning and future center of that characteristic southern life so emphatically distinguished for its aristocratic influence on the nation.

The first Virginia colonists, one hundred and five in number, setting out from London on the wintry sea, and sailing by way of the Canary and West Indian Islands, reached the capes of the Chesapeake Bay, which they named for the two sons of James I, Cape Charles and Cape Henry. Proceeding some thirty miles up the James River, they founded Jamestown on the northern bank of the stream (1607). Both river and village were named in honor of the English monarch, James I.



JAMESTOWN AND VICINITY

England's purposes in settling Virginia were financial profit, acquisition of territory, and relief for the crowded industrial conditions at home. In the Netherlands there had been a great increase in the weaving of woolen goods; and England, being one of the best countries for raising sheep, turned many of her farms into sheep pastures in order to supply the Dutch with wool. Consequently large numbers of men were thrown out of work, and great distress became prevalent among the laboring classes. How to provide for the unemployed became a

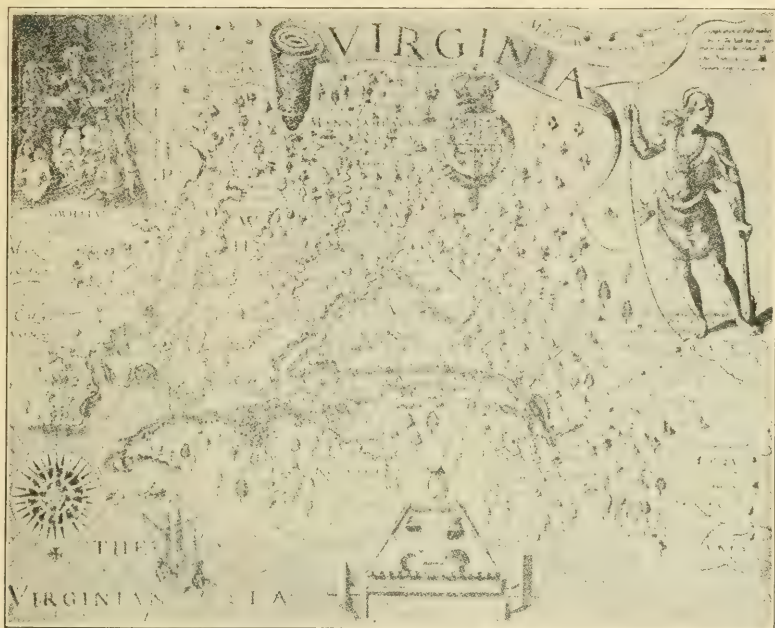
difficult problem to which the New World seemed to furnish a solution.

103. Character of the Colonists—Communism a Failure. The original settlers of Virginia were, for the most part, idle, lawless, and improvident. One-half of them were so-called "gentlemen," unaccustomed to labor. They expected to make their fortune in the New World and then return home.

The conditions surrounding the Jamestown colony were unfavorable. Malaria lurked in the swamps; the water was bad; the heat intense; the Indians hostile. The London Company looked for immediate profit, which led to fruitless search for gold. The colonists possessed no guiding spirits endowed with the proper qualities for undertaking the work of colonization, and the plan under which the colony was founded proved impracticable. Each man's labor was for the common benefit; each man was fed out of a common store. This took away every incentive to individual exertion, and made discipline impossible. Under this system of "communism," as it was called, the idle could draw from the common storehouse without labor, while the industrious knew that by their toil they must feed the idle. Owing to these adverse circumstances, half of the little colony had found a grave in the wilderness before the end of September, while those remaining were discouraged and homesick.

104. John Smith Saves the Colony—His Explorations. Captain Newport soon returned to England, and Wingfield, who was left in charge of the colony, proved unqualified for the difficult position. He was therefore deposed, and the direction of matters gradually fell into the hands of John Smith, a man of bold and determined character. Smith compelled the men to work, saying, "He who will not labor shall not eat." He skillfully obtained food from the Indians for the starving settlers and introduced the systematic cultivation of corn. He drilled the men, repaired the fortifications, and for two years was the mainstay of the Jamestown colony, which he undoubtedly saved from ruin.

While governor of Virginia, Smith made a series of explorations up Chesapeake Bay and the rivers flowing into it. He hoped to find a passage to the Pacific, obtain corn for his



CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH'S MAP OF VIRGINIA

people, and make a correct map of Virginia, which wild region he thought to be a narrow strip of land between the two oceans. In the course of his explorations, Smith was captured by the Indians, and is said to have escaped death by means of his quick wit and through the mediation of the Indian princess Pocahontas. This princess, the daughter of the great Indian chief Powhatan, often visited Jamestown and became the loyal friend and kindly benefactress of the colony. Samuel Argall, remembered in history for his treacherous exploits, on one occasion kidnapped Pocahontas and carried

her off to Jamestown, demanding a ransom. Preparations were made for war, but the marriage of the maiden to John Rolfe, a Virginia planter, prevented hostilities. During her life at Jamestown she was baptized. Pocahontas and her husband later went to England, where she was received with great favor and styled "Lady Rebecca." When she was about to return to the New World, she died, leaving an only son, Thomas, from whom descended the famous orator and statesman, John Randolph, and other leading Virginians.

105. The Starving Time. Two years after the founding of Jamestown, another band of five hundred settlers came to Virginia. It was composed chiefly of the refuse of English jails and the ruffians of the street. Because of an injury, Smith went back to England. The Indians, taking advantage of his absence, attacked and plundered the colony. Lawlessness, famine, and disease hastened the work of destruction, so that at the end of the dreadful winter (1609-1610), known as "the starving time," scarcely sixty of the colony of nearly five hundred were left alive. Lord Delaware, the newly appointed governor, came to Jamestown (June, 1610) just in time to prevent the miserable remnant from setting sail for England. Ill health, however, obliged him to leave Jamestown the following March.

106. Communism Abolished—Cultivation of Tobacco. Sir Thomas Dale, who succeeded Lord Delaware (1611), was a strict disciplinarian, and during the course of the next five years he introduced order and new energy into the affairs of the colony by abolishing communism. He gave to each settler a tract of land. Now even the indolent began to think it worth while to get to work. Thieves and mutineers were hanged without mercy. Later, the settlers were permitted to buy one hundred acres of land, and each farmer was obliged to give two and one-half bushels of corn to the public granary.

Raleigh had introduced tobacco into England, and its use soon spread so that a great demand for it arose in Europe. The people of Virginia, finding the soil well adapted to its

cultivation, began to raise it in large quantities, and the future of Virginia was assured. Tobacco was used in the place of coin, and its value was fixed at seventy-five cents a pound. The cultivation of this "fragrant weed" provided employment for an increased population and stimulated commerce. Tobacco cultivation, however, exhausted the soil, and the planters, requiring immense tracts of land, extended their plantations far from each other. It is said that no man could see his neighbor without a telescope, or be heard by him without firing a gun.

107. A Better Class of People. When the Cavaliers came to Virginia they added new life to the steadily increasing prosperity of the colony. They acquired great tracts of land on which they cultivated tobacco on a large scale.

The Cavaliers, or Royalists, consisted of the nobility, the gentry, and the clergy of England. They had been supporters of Charles I during the great civil and religious war in England, and had been defeated by the Puritans, or "Round-heads," as the supporters of Parliament were called. Charles I was beheaded, and the Commonwealth followed (1649-1660), during which time England was ruled by Cromwell as "Lord Protector," and later by his son Richard. Thousands of the Cavaliers fled to Virginia to escape persecution by the Puritans. They molded its history and gave the colony an aristocratic character. From them are descended Washington, Monroe, Madison, Marshall, and many other noted men of our history.

108. Indentured Servants—Negro Slaves. To satisfy the great demand for cheap labor, convicts and criminals from the overcrowded prisons in England, kidnapped children, and unwary English people were sold to Virginia. These "Indentured Servants" were bound out to labor for a term of years (five to seven and upwards), after which they were set free.

Shiploads of Irish Catholics, persecuted for patriotism and religion, were sold into forced service to the American planters during Cromwell's rule; moreover, many poor but respectable persons sold themselves in order to secure a new start in

the world. Thus the honored and the persecuted, the good and the refuse of England, contributed toward the population of the first-born of American states.

In 1619 the captain of a Dutch vessel sold twenty negroes to the colonists. As their labor proved profitable in the cultivation of tobacco, many more were imported. Thus were sown the seeds of slavery which resulted in the great Civil War.

109. First Representative Assembly in America. The London Company had appointed a governor to manage the affairs of the colony. Since the settlers, however, desired a more representative government, the company appointed Sir George Yeardley governor of the colony, and under his direction a general assembly, called the "House of Burgesses," convened to consider the affairs of the colony (June 30, 1619). The government was composed of a governor, a council, and two representatives or burgesses from each of the eleven boroughs or districts, and was modeled after the English King, House of Lords, and House of Commons. This three-fold division furnished a basis for our present state and national government.

110. Family Ties. About one hundred young women of good reputation were induced by the London Company to embark for Virginia, where they were disposed of to the planters as wives at the cost of their passage (one hundred and fifty pounds of tobacco). Family life now found a place in Virginia, and the people became prosperous and contented.

111. Virginia Becomes a Royal Colony. A bloody war occurred (1622) between the colonists and the Indians, who were led by the brother of Powhatan. This war, together with famine and sickness, reduced the number of colonists from four thousand to eight hundred and ninety-four. As the king disliked the growing republican sentiment of the London Company, he made an excuse of this Indian massacre to charge the company with failure to protect its colonists. Consequently the charter was annulled (1624) and Virginia became a royal colony, which it remained until the War of the Revolution. The House of Burgesses, however, continued

to exist throughout the colonial period. The king appointed the governor and the council; the colony chose the members of the House of Burgesses.

112. The Navigation Acts. The Navigation Acts, passed by England, required that:

- (a) colonial commerce be carried on in English vessels;
- (b) certain colonial exports be sent to England;
- (c) colonial imports come from England.

These acts nearly ruined the trade of Virginia. They greatly enriched the colonial trade of England, but embittered the colonists against the mother country and added to the grievances which gave rise to the struggle for American independence.

113. Berkeley's Hard Rule—Bacon's Rebellion. Sir William Berkeley's rule as governor was the longest in colonial history (1642-1652, 1659-1676). He was a man of ability, and a stalwart upholder of the king, but he was narrow-minded, dishonest, and oppressive. He did not believe in popular government and was hostile to education. In one instance he was heard to say, "I thank God that there are no free schools or printing, and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years." He, like the king, thought that education made the people discontented and rebellious against authority.

When an Indian war broke out on the borders of Maryland, Berkeley refused to defend the colony for fear that his fur trade with the natives might suffer. Thereupon, Nathaniel Bacon, a young lawyer, raised a force and defeated the enemy. Because of this action, the governor pronounced him a traitor. The people, however, so disliked Berkeley and the aristocratic party, that they armed themselves under Bacon, drove the governor out of Jamestown, and burned the village (1676). In the midst of his success Bacon died, and Berkeley returned to Virginia. He at once put to death twenty of Bacon's followers and continued to rule the colony in his despotic manner, until the king, disgusted with such tyranny, recalled him, saying: "The old fool has taken more lives in that naked country than I have taken for the murder of my father."

114. Religion—Education—Manners and Customs. The colonists of Virginia belonged to the Church of England, and originally no one could settle in Virginia unless he acknowledged the king as head of the church. This shut out many Protestants as well as Catholics from the colony, but the laws against the latter were especially severe. No Catholic could vote, hold office, or be heard in a court of justice. No priest was allowed in the colony.



WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE

Colonial Virginia was slow in providing educational advantages. As the government was narrow in its religious principles, it did not favor education. Moreover, the widespread population made it impossible to have schools located at convenient distances. Free schools, therefore, were not established until 1688. The first college in the colony was the College of William and Mary, founded at Williamsburg (1693).

The Virginians were social, hospitable, and fond of amusements, such as fishing, horse racing, fox hunting, and other outdoor sports. They resided in large mansions, while their slaves lived apart in small cabins. They had no large towns, but lived on plantations, and engaged in raising tobacco, corn, and sweet potatoes. During the one hundred years intervening between Bacon's Rebellion and the Revolution, Virginia prospered greatly and became the most populous as well as the richest of the English colonies.

THE SETTLEMENT OF MARYLAND

115. The Maryland Grant—First Settlement. Unlike Virginia, which was settled by a company, Maryland was founded and practically owned by a lord proprietor. George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore, a prominent English Catholic, who desired to found a colony in America which might serve as a refuge for the persecuted Catholics of England, obtained from Charles I a grant of the unoccupied land north of the Potomac. He died, however, before his patent had received the royal signature, and his rights descended to his son, Cecilius Calvert, the second Lord Baltimore, who inherited not only his noble father's titles, but also his benevolent views. Thinking that it would be to the interest of the colony for him to remain in England, Cecilius appointed his younger brother, Leonard, governor of the new colony.

The Catholics of England had been cruelly persecuted since the time of the Reformation, and longed for a refuge where they might practice their religion in peace. They therefore gladly enlisted under the banner of the Calverts, who themselves, in the face of intolerant laws and still more intolerant sentiments of the time, had become conscientious Roman Catholics, at the peril of station, honors, and office.

The little band of Maryland immigrants, imbued with a true colonizing spirit, brought with them their families, servants, a considerable body of artisans and laborers, and four Jesuits,



GEORGE CALVERT

numbering in all about three hundred. They sailed from Cowes, England, in the *Ark* and the *Dove* on St. Cecilia's day, and, after a stormy four months' voyage, landed on the northern bank of the Potomac on the festival of the Annunciation. Father White celebrated Holy Mass in honor of the day in an Indian wigwam on the very soil where Spanish Jesuits, half a century before, had offered the same holy sacrifice for the first time in that wild region. A large cross was erected, and St. Mary's was then solemnly founded near the sites of the future Mount Vernon, and the future political center of the nation, the capital city of Washington.

At the request of King Charles I, the new colony received the name of Maryland in honor of his Queen, Henrietta Maria, the Catholic daughter of Henry IV of France. The newly founded town was called St. Mary's in honor of the Blessed Virgin Mary, on whose festival the colonists had landed. Maryland was thus founded (1634) at St. Mary's on the Potomac River by English Catholics.

116. Extent and Significance of the Maryland Grant. The country originally granted to Lord Baltimore was located south of the fortieth parallel and embraced, besides the present states of Maryland and Delaware, large portions of Pennsylvania, and New Jersey. Unlike Virginia and Pennsylvania, Maryland was given, by its charter, a western boundary—the meridian of the source of the Potomac. Maryland had as its southern boundary, the southern bank of the Potomac to a certain point whence the line extended across the bay and the peninsula to the ocean. Many disputes arose between Maryland and Virginia because of this southern boundary and because of the fact that Virginia controlled the entrance of the river, while Maryland controlled the river itself.

The patent granted Lord Baltimore, which had been prepared by his own hand, was the most liberal ever given any British subject. It showed, as Bancroft observes, that "its author deserves to be ranked among the wise and benevolent law-givers of all ages." It made religious freedom the basis of

the state, and secured to the colonists a large share in their government. The proprietor was an almost independent sovereign. He could coin money, grant titles of nobility, create courts, appoint judges, pardon criminals, and summon an assembly of representatives. Enactments of the assembly needed only his signature, not that of the king, to become laws. Moreover, his office was hereditary in his family. One limitation of his proprietary power should, however, be noted: he could make laws and collect taxes only with the consent of the people. Hence, Maryland had its assemblies from the beginning. As an acknowledgment of his allegiance to the crown, the proprietor was required to pay annually two Indian arrows and one-fifth of all the gold and silver that might be found in the province.

117. St. Mary's and the Indians. Maryland, unlike most of the other colonies, never had any serious Indian troubles. The colonists originally paid the natives for their land, treated them with kindness and justice, and endeavored to convert and civilize them. The savages in turn, won by the gentle and friendly manners of the strangers, readily gave them every assistance in their power. Fathers Andrew White and John Altham, and the lay brothers, John Knowles and Thomas Gervase, joined by others of their Order, established missions among the Indians. The effect of their devoted zeal was soon manifest. Old and young responded to their efforts.

118. Prosperity of St. Mary's. The settlers of St. Mary's, unlike those of Jamestown, immediately began to build and plant. A crop of corn was gathered the first autumn; the Indians taught the colonists how to prepare it for food and how to trap game. Before winter, all were comfortably sheltered. Bancroft says: "Within six months the colony had advanced more than Virginia had done in as many years. The persecuted and the unhappy thronged to the domains of the benevolent prince. Affections expanded in the wilderness. The planter's whole heart was in his family; his pride, in the

children that bloomed around him, making the solitudes laugh with innocence and gayety."

119. Claiborne's Rebellion. William Claiborne, a Virginian, with his adherents, refused to submit to the authority of Lord Baltimore, in whose domain he had established a trading post. When he was driven out by Calvert he fled to England, but soon returned, and with the aid of Puritans, who had been expelled from Virginia and kindly received in Maryland, attacked St. Mary's. He expelled Governor Calvert and took possession of the government. Lawlessness and intolerance now distressed the country for more than a year. Governor Calvert, with a force of his colonists, finally drove out the rebels and peace was restored. Claiborne, who has been called "The evil genius of the colony," troubled the settlement for ten years. During this period many of the Maryland Catholics were persecuted and the altars of their religion overthrown. The Jesuit Fathers, among whom was the aged Father White, were seized, put in irons, and shipped to loathsome dungeons in England.

120. Religious Toleration—Toleration Act. The distinctive feature of the Maryland colony under the Calverts was religious toleration. St. Mary's was the refuge of Catholics persecuted in England, and of Protestants who fled from religious intolerance in the other colonies. Throughout Maryland religion had its peaceful sway, in the wigwam of the Indian as well as in the town of St. Mary's. Bancroft says: "From France, Germany, Holland, Sweden, Finland, and Piedmont, the children of misfortune sought protection under the tolerant scepter of the Roman Catholic."

After the execution of Charles I, and the triumph of the Puritan party in England, the Maryland colonists, fearing religious persecution, determined to place religious freedom on as secure a basis as possible. Accordingly the Maryland assembly passed (1649) the celebrated Toleration Act, which provided that all Christian denominations should be protected in

Maryland. This was the first enactment of the kind in the United States and merited for the colony the name "Land of the Sanctuary."

When the Protestants obtained a majority in the Maryland assembly, they repealed the Toleration Act (1654), excluded Catholics from the Assembly, refused them the protection of the law, and forbade the practice of their worship. The result was a civil war. For three years the victory alternated. At one time there existed two governments, one Protestant, the other Catholic. Finally, Lord Baltimore was entirely deprived (1691) of his proprietary rights, and Maryland became a royal province. The Catholics were disfranchised; the Church of England was established by law, and the capital was removed to the center of Protestant influence, which was now called Annapolis. At length (1714) the fifth Lord Baltimore (Benedict), renounced his Catholic faith and was restored to his proprietary rights. Maryland remained a proprietary colony until the rule of the sixth Lord Baltimore was ended by the Declaration of Independence. The Catholics, however, did not recover their rights until after the Revolution.

121. The Mason and Dixon's Line. In order to dispose of much ill feeling between Maryland and Pennsylvania, arising from boundary disputes, the Mason and Dixon's Line was established (1763-67). This east-west boundary line, fixed by two eminent surveyors, Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, was adopted by Maryland and Pennsylvania as limiting their respective territories. It was later extended westward and became noted in history as marking the division between the free and the slave states.

122. Religion—Customs—Education. The Maryland people were very much like the Virginians except in religious matters. Like them, they were social and hospitable; sought amusements in outdoor sports (horse racing, fox hunting, etc.); had few towns, lived on broad plantations, and raised tobacco as a staple crop. They cultivated at an early date

Indian corn and the sweet potato, and caught oysters and shot wild ducks in the waters of the bay. Negro slaves performed the work on the plantations. They lived apart in detached huts, although, in Catholic families, they were treated as members of the household.

The Catholics of Maryland brought with them their learned Jesuit teachers, who instructed their children, as well as those of the red man, in the essentials of religious and secular learning. From the repeal of the Toleration Act until the Revolu-



EARLY ANNAPOLIS

tion, the instruction of Catholic youth by Catholic teachers was prohibited. The Jesuits, notwithstanding, secretly maintained two schools for boys. However, there were very few schools of any kind before the Revolution. The earliest was King William's School, now St. John's College, which was established (1694) at Annapolis by Nicholson, the second royal governor appointed by William and Mary.

123. Three Notable Facts. Among the thirteen original colonies Maryland was the first proprietary colony, the first self-governing colony, and the first colony to grant religious freedom.

THE SETTLEMENT OF THE CAROLINAS

124. The Carolina Grant. Charles II of England, noted for his liberality in giving away American lands, granted (1663) the fertile territory stretching from Virginia to Florida and extending westward to the Pacific to Lord Clarendon and seven associates. These noblemen had either assisted the king in the recovery of his throne or befriended him in his exile during Cromwell's supremacy.

The French, a century previous, had given the name Carolina to their attempted settlements in this region in honor of Charles IX of France. The Carolina proprietors retained the name out of compliment to Charles II of England.

125. The Grand Model—The Carolinas as Royal Colonies. A code of laws, called the "Grand Model," was drawn up for the government of the province of Carolina by the English philosopher, Locke. It divided the territory into provinces of nearly half a million acres, each to be governed by a landgrave, with a whole order of nobles under him. No settler was to vote unless he owned fifty or more acres of land. The tillers of the soil were to be serfs, and inferior to these were to be the slaves. In short, the "Grand Model" was to be a revival of the feudal system which had long since ceased to exist in the country that was now trying to bring it into existence again. Its only good feature was that it guaranteed religious liberty to all. The Church of England was, however, established by law.

The Grand Model proved to be a grand failure. It was aristocratic, giving all the power to the nobles and barons, leaving the people in a condition of serfdom; the people, however, were determined to govern themselves. They decidedly objected to the Model; consequently, its regulations were never fully and fairly put into effect, although it remained nominally in force for more than twenty years. Finally it was set aside by Parliament, which purchased the rights of the proprietors and divided the province into North

Carolina and South Carolina. From this time (1729) until the Revolution (1775) the Carolinas remained two distinct royal colonies.

126. North Carolina Settled. North Carolina was first settled (1653) at Albemarle Sound by immigrants from Virginia under the leadership of Roger Greene. It was later called Albemarle in honor of the Duke of Albemarle, one of the proprietors. Among the people who first came to North Carolina were many rough characters; but there were also many industrious small farmers, and Quakers and Puritans, who had been expelled from other colonies. A number of settlers from the West Indies, under George Yeamans, established themselves (1664) near the mouth of the Cape Fear River, the present site of Wilmington, and with some New Englanders formed the Clarendon Colony.

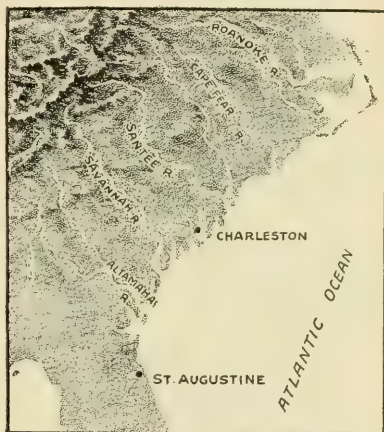
127. Growth of the Colony. The growth of North Carolina was, at first, slow. The settlement at Albemarle made little progress; that at Clarendon was abandoned. After 1700, however, large numbers of French and Germans, and some years later many Irish, Scotch, and Swiss, emigrated to the colony. From this time on the population grew so fast that, during the Revolution, North Carolina ranked fourth among the thirteen original colonies. This population, however, lived widely scattered along the coast or in the roadless wilds and woods, either raising grain and live stock on small farms, or engaged in cutting timber, making tar and turpentine, hunting the bear, and trapping the beaver. These conditions were not conducive to the growth of industrial centers; hence, early North Carolina had no towns, and in power and importance she could not compare with her northern sister colonies. The people, nevertheless, loved their beautiful summer land. Cut off from the rest of the world, happy and contented in their isolation, they formed a sturdy colony, tolerant in religious matters, and marked by a spirit of independence. They were not free, however, from trouble with the Indians. A powerful tribe called

Tuscaroras attacked and massacred (1711) hundreds of colonists. After two years of warfare the savages were defeated. They then joined their kinsmen of New York, known before this time as the Five Nations, and after this as the Six Nations.

THE FOUNDING OF SOUTH CAROLINA

128. Industrial Growth. South Carolina was first settled (1670) on the Ashley River by immigrants from England under the leadership of William Sayle and Joseph West. This settlement originally known as the Carteret Colony, was removed after a few years (1680) to a better situation at the junction of the Ashley and Cooper rivers. Thus was laid the foundation of Charleston, the fifth largest city in colonial America. The only larger cities were Philadelphia, New York, Boston, and Baltimore.

The South Carolina people early engaged in agricultural pursuits. They soon ascertained that the soil and the climate were suitable for the growing of all the plants of the Old World. Plantations of pears, olives, and mulberry trees soon extended along the Cooper and Santee rivers. Rice was introduced from Madagascar and was found well adapted to the lowlands; indigo flourished, and later cotton became a most important staple. South Carolina traded extensively with the Indians in furs, and had a large export trade to the northern colonies and the West Indies in forest products—timber, pitch, and turpentine. The result of the profitable commerce in rice and indigo



caused South Carolina to grow rapidly in both population and wealth, and Charleston soon became the metropolis of the South. Thither came a liberty-seeking stream of immigrants from Holland, Germany, Scotland, Northern Ireland, and France. The French Huguenots came to Carolina in such numbers that in Charleston alone there were sixteen thousand at one time. They, as well as the other immigrants, brought with

them mechanical skill and mercantile enterprise, and their influence greatly promoted the industrial prosperity of South Carolina.

129. Slave Labor Profitable—Piracy. Negro slaves from Barbadoes were brought to the Carteret Colony within a year after its founding (1671). The heat of the summer made labor in the malarial atmosphere of the forest and the rice swamps fatal to the white man. Hence, negroes were imported to South Carolina in greater numbers than to any other colony. At the time of the Revolution they constituted nearly two-thirds of the population. South Caro-



BLACKBEARD

lina differed from all the other colonies in that it depended largely upon slave labor from the beginning.

At the time when the Carolinas were being founded the sea in the vicinity of the West Indies was rendered unsafe by hundreds of pirates who had set up their strongholds on some of the West Indies and the neighboring American coast.

Robert Thatch, commonly called Blackbeard, was perhaps the most noted of these pirates. On one occasion he obliged the governor of Charleston to pay a specified ransom for some captured passengers on pain of their instant death. Thatch was killed in a fight with Virginian ships (1718). The English employed a sea captain, named William Kidd, to command a vessel against the pirates, but after getting out to sea, Kidd and his men turned pirates themselves, and soon became the most famous sea-robbers ever known. Kidd roved the sea for a year or two, amassing great treasures, a portion of which he was said to have buried somewhere on Gardner's Island at the east end of Long Island. He was at length captured, taken to London, tried, and hanged (1701). At first the people of Carolina engaged in trade with the pirates, but when the latter began to capture ships trading with Charleston, the Carolina people joined in the war against them; and finally the pirates were defeated and their power broken (1730).

130. Religion—Government. The Church of England was the established church of South Carolina, but there was little or no religious persecution. The people of South Carolina, like those of North Carolina, strenuously resisted every attempt of the proprietors to introduce the Grand Model. They chose their own assembly from the beginning, and eventually elected their own governors, in the name of the king.

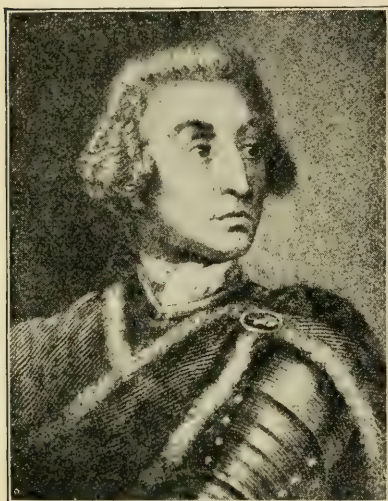
131. Manners—Customs. The Carolina people were characterized by genial manners, culture, and thrift. Among them, however, were men of turbulence, who carried on a double slave trade—one of importation from Africa, the other of exportation to the West Indies. Slave labor was employed exclusively. The work on the rice and indigo plantations was directed by overseers.

The rich planters, as a rule, resided in comfortable and handsome houses at Charleston. Life in that town, with its theaters, balls, and dinner parties, was gay, although little attention was paid to education.

THE SETTLEMENT OF GEORGIA

132. James E. Oglethorpe—Georgia Founded. James E. Oglethorpe was a man prominent in the public life of England for more than half a century. In his capacity as chairman of a Parliamentary committee, whose duty it was to investigate the prisons, he became acquainted with the abuses of the English prisons for debtors. Moved by the misery of the un-

fortunate inmates, he conceived the idea of founding a colony in America where the most deserving of them could begin life anew. He formed a company of men known as "The Trustees," and with their aid secured the release from prison of a number of the most worthy inmates. He obtained (1732) from George II a grant of the country between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers as far westward as the Pacific, and prepared to plant his colony. Georgia was settled in 1733 at Savannah by a company



JAMES E. OGLETHORPE

of discharged English prisoners (about thirty-five families, one hundred and twenty-five persons) under the authority of "The Trustees" and the leadership of James Oglethorpe. Transportation, food, and land were given the settlers in return for labor and military service. The new colony was named Georgia for George II of England, and the settlement took its name from that of the river near which the little cabins of the settlers were first reared. Georgia, the last of the Southern Group, as also the last of the famous thirteen original colonies in order

of foundation, was settled the year after the birth of George Washington.

133. Object—Progress. Oglethorpe's object in planting Georgia was threefold: to found a military barrier between the Carolinas and the troublesome Spaniards in Florida; to offer a refuge to persecuted Protestants in Europe; and to transfer the inmates of English debtor prisons to the American wilds, where they might make a new start in life.

The discharged English prisoners proved poor material for the founding of a colony. Oglethorpe's philanthropic plans were on the point of being wrecked, when a number of industrious German Protestants, a colony of Swiss and Moravians, and a hardy band of thrifty Scotch mountaineers emigrated to Georgia and made possible the final success of the settlement. The progress of the settlement was hampered from the very beginning by certain restrictive regulations, which distinguished Georgia from all her sister colonies. The government was exclusively in the hands of the trustees, and each settler was given but a limited tract of land, which must descend to a male heir. Moreover, the colonists complained because the importation of intoxicating liquors was forbidden, thus cutting off a promising commerce with the West Indies; and because slavery was prohibited.

134. War with Florida—Georgia and the Indians. When war broke out between Spain and England (1739), Oglethorpe (1740) attacked St. Augustine but failed to take it. The Spaniards attempted to retaliate two years later by sending an unsuccessful expedition into Georgia.

The Georgians cultivated friendly relations with the Indians. They procured their land by purchase. The various tribes of the Muskoki family sent their chiefs to Savannah to make an alliance with the colony. The savages were pleased with the noble and commanding appearance of Oglethorpe and his frank, kindly manner of dealing with them, and trusted in his promises. Subsequently a profitable trade was established

with the tribes as far west as the Mississippi. Rice was the main staple crop. The only town was the village of Savannah, from which Indian trails led to the widely-spread plantations and trading posts.

135. Georgia a Royal Colony. Oglethorpe desired to establish a model colony. He considered slavery a horrible crime, and the use of ardent drinks the cause of the debt and misery from which the colonists had fled, but the people were loud in their complaints against the restrictive regulations and the trustees eventually repealed them. Georgia now entered upon a flourishing commerce and soon became a typical southern colony. Oglethorpe, however, returned to England (1743) and the trustees, unsuccessful in their attempts at government, gladly surrendered the charter to the crown (1752). Georgia thus became a royal province and remained such until the time of the Revolution. James Oglethorpe alone of all the colony builders lived until after the Revolution, and saw the thirteen original colonies become an independent nation.

136. Religion. The Church of England was the established form of worship, but toleration was granted to all except Catholics. John Wesley, the founder of Methodism, came to Georgia in 1735 and introduced the Methodist Church into America. He failed in his original intention of converting the Indians and, becoming unpopular in the colony, returned to England after a period of two years. George Whitefield founded an orphan home near Savannah. He was an associate of Wesley, an eloquent preacher, and an ardent advocate of slavery. The restriction of the employment and importation of slaves was removed largely through his influence.

CHAPTER IX

THE MIDDLE GROUP OF COLONIES

THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW YORK

137. New York Settled. The Dutch had laid claim to the land between the Delaware and Connecticut rivers by right of the exploration of Henry Hudson. They now began to make good this claim by establishing trading posts (1613-1614), one near the present site of Albany, New York, and one on Manhattan Island. These settlements were made, however, without any serious attempt at colonization. The first permanent settlements were established in 1623, on Manhattan Island and at Fort Orange (Albany), by some Dutch families sent out by the Dutch West India Company. The object of Dutch colonization was trade.

The West India Company sent (1626) Peter Minuit with a band of settlers to reinforce the small trading post which had been established on Manhattan Island. Minuit bought the island from the Indians for about twenty-four dollars' worth of trinkets, and founded New Amsterdam, now New York City.

138. The Patroon System. The colony at first made little progress. To attract settlers to the new colony, the West India Company established (1629) the "patroon system." This gave to any member of the company who within four years brought into the colony fifty adult settlers an extensive grant of land. The land was to be fairly bought from the Indians. Such great land owners were called patroons. The patroon was required to pay the emigrant's passage from Holland, to stock a farm with all necessary animals and implements, and to provide a minister of the gospel and a schoolmaster, and

was forbidden to engage in the fur trade with the Indians. In return the emigrant bound himself not to leave the land of the patroon without permission; to give the patroon the first opportunity to buy any grain or product that he might have to sell; to pay rent, and to bring all disputes about property, etc., to the patroon's court.

As a matter of fact, few patroonships were established. Later, however, both the Dutch and the English granted large estates, or manors, which were worked by tenants. In this way colonial New York became a sort of landed aristocracy. Some of these estates (for instance the Van Rensselaer's) retained certain privileges until late in the nineteenth century. The anti-rent difficulties arising between landlord and tenant during the presidency of Tyler grew out of such titles.



DUTCH MAIDEN

The patroon system did not tend toward individual prosperity or increase of population. Like other plans for colonization by which the settlers were made dependent on large landowners, as in Carolina and Georgia, it gave little opportunity to the mass of the colonists and hence proved a failure. The system was later modified. The profitable fur trade was thrown open to all comers, and land was granted in small quantities on payment of an annual rent. The result was an influx of population from many European countries as well as from the neighboring colonies, so that at one time eighteen languages were spoken in New Amsterdam, and by 1664 the population of New Netherland had increased in number to ten thousand.

139. The Dutch and the Indians. From the time of Hudson's voyage friendly relations existed between the Dutch traders and the powerful Iroquois Indians of the upper Hudson and

Mohawk valleys. Consequently the Dutch fur traders could easily secure great quantities of valuable peltries from other Indian tribes through the hands of the friendly Iroquois in return for blankets, utensils, firearms, gin, and rum, so highly prized by the savages. The Algonquin tribes on the lower Hudson, however, were provoked to hostility through the cruelty of Governor Kieft. Terrible Indian wars ensued, during which the colony was nearly ruined before peace was restored.

140. The Colony Under Dutch Rule. New Netherland was ruled (1626-64) by four Dutch governors. Peter Minuit, the founder of New Amsterdam, was recalled after a period of six years; Wouter Van Twiller, incompetent and indolent, was succeeded by William Kieft, who, on account of his temper was called "William the Testy." He was an embezzler, noted for his cruel treatment of the Indians, and the severity of his rule. He was, however, kind to Father Jogues. After a period of misgovernment he was recalled. On his way to Holland, his ship was wrecked on the coast of Wales and the deposed governor was among the lost. Peter Stuyvesant was the last and most able of the four Dutch governors. He was known as "Peter the Headstrong" on account of his stubbornness, and "Old Silverleg" because he had a wooden leg bound with bands of silver. A strange mixture of good and evil, he has been well described as a noble, honest, headstrong, generous, kindly, conscientious, eager, lion-hearted, old soldier. Withal he was a strong defender of the colony, and soon readjusted all difficulties. Being extremely despotic, he opposed all self-governing ideas, but finally so far yielded to the demands of the people that he allowed the town to elect delegates. When these delegates were elected, however, he refused them all power and the enraged people began to covet the political privileges of their English neighbors.

141. England Lays Claim to New Netherland. After allowing the Dutch to occupy for half a century the territory they

had discovered, England, jealous of the prosperity and advantages of her Dutch commercial rival, and wishing to have a strong and unbroken line of colonies along the Atlantic coast, asserted her claims to New Netherland by virtue of the Cabot voyages. Accordingly Charles II granted the land between the Delaware and Connecticut rivers to his brother, the Duke of York (later James II of England). An English fleet of three vessels, carrying troops, anchored in the harbor of New York (1664). The English force exceeded that at Governor Stuyvesant's command. Moreover, the colonists welcomed the opportunity to exchange the illiberal Dutch rule for better government under the English. They therefore surrendered



NEW YORK IN 1673

New Amsterdam and with it the whole of New Netherland without resistance. New Amsterdam and New Netherland were now called New York, and Fort Orange was named Albany, in honor of the proprietor, who was Duke of York and Albany. In the course of a war between England and Holland, a Dutch fleet recaptured New York in 1673. It was, however, returned to the English by treaty in the following year.

142. The Colony Under English Rule—Leisler's Rebellion. With its conquest by England, New York became a proprietary colony, which it remained until its proprietor, the Duke of York, became king of England as James II, when it became a royal colony. James II did not favor a popular government

and consequently the people were not granted the privileges they had anticipated. Nicolls, the first English governor, ruled wisely; his successor, Lovelace, ruled mildly; and Thomas Dongan (1683-88), a Catholic of liberal views and tireless energy, called the first assembly of New York and granted the famous Dongan charter. When the Duke of York became king, he deprived the colony of the representative government granted by Dongan, and annexed New York to New England, which was under the tyrannical rule of Andros.

The later royal governors, by their oppressive rule, exasperated the people and when James II (1689) was driven from the throne, the New York colonists, headed by Jacob Leisler, established a government of their own. William III (1691) sent over a new governor, and Leisler was tried for treason and executed. The assembly was restored, and from this time until the Revolutionary War New York retained its popular assembly.

143. Negro Plot. Several mysterious fires occurred in New York City (1741). Catholics and negroes were accused of having plotted to burn the town. Bigotry was at its height; four white people and eighteen negroes were hanged; fourteen negroes were burned at the stake, and seventy transported to the West Indies. It was later proved that no such plot as was suspected had existed.

144. Religion—Education—Manners and Customs. Under Dutch rule the established religion was that of the Dutch Reformed Church and there was little persecution. Under English rule the Episcopalian religion prevailed, and, except during Dongan's regime, Catholicism was proscribed. Catholics were denied the right of suffrage, and priests were ordered under the penalty of imprisonment and death to leave the colony. In spite of this, the first Holy Mass in New York was celebrated (1665) at the request of the Onondaga Indians by Father Dablon on the site of the present city of Syracuse.

But little progress was made for a long time in education, although during Dongan's rule a Catholic College was opened in New York City.

The Dutch were thrifty, honest, and hospitable. Their chief occupations were fur trading and farming. The dress and furniture of the Dutch were extremely simple. They used no carpets, but had white sanded floors. They breakfasted at dawn, dined at eleven, and retired at sunset. Their houses, built of wood, with gable ends of colored brick from Holland, had many windows and doors. Country houses were called



A DUTCH TAVERN

“Boweries.” Instead of clocks and watches they had hour glasses and sun-dials. Sleighing, skating, and coasting were first introduced into the colonies by the Dutch.

Though Holland had failed as a nation in colonizing America, the colonial Dutch settlers were a sturdy, whole-souled race, and their influence was indelibly impressed for good on the part of the country settled by them. The Dutch maintained their simple life and their language and customs for two hundred years. Not until after the Revolution did they lose their identity and their language.

THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW JERSEY

145. Land Grant and First Settlement. New Jersey, originally included in the territory claimed by the Dutch, was early occupied by both the Dutch and the Swedes. The Swedes crossed from their settlement in Delaware, and the Dutch from New Amsterdam. The Swedish posts were soon conquered by the Dutch and incorporated with their own colony. After the conquest of New Netherland (1664) the Duke of York gave the southern part, lying between the Delaware River and the ocean, to two of his favorites—Lords Berkeley and Carteret—and called it New Jersey in honor of Sir George Carteret, who had distinguished himself as governor of the island of Jersey in the English Channel.

The first permanent English settlement in New Jersey was made in 1665 at Elizabethtown by a company of immigrants led by Philip Carteret (cousin of Sir George Carteret). Elizabethtown was named for Lady Carteret.

146. East and West Jersey—Government. The New Jersey province was finally divided into East and West Jersey (1674) and was for many years known as "The Jerseys." The Jerseys eventually passed into the hands of a party of Quakers, among whom was William Penn. There was much confusion over land titles, until the proprietors, wearied about the rents and other matters, sold (1702) their claims to the English crown. Queen Anne united the Jerseys under the jurisdiction of the governor of New York. In 1738, New Jersey was made a royal province, which it continued to be until the Revolution. Colonial New Jersey, however, had its own assembly and was tolerant in religious matters. New Jersey was a land of farmers. The growth of Philadelphia and New York furnished markets for their agricultural products.

Princeton, the fourth college founded in America, was opened in 1746, at Newark. It was transferred (1752) to Princeton, where it is still located.

THE SETTLEMENT OF DELAWARE

147. Origin of New Sweden—First Settlement. The little state of Delaware was originally included in the Dutch claim. It was also a part of the Maryland territory granted to Lord Baltimore. It owed its origin to the ambition of Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden. This monarch desired to establish a Swedish colonial empire on the banks of the Delaware, which territory he pronounced "the jewel of his kingdom." The death of Gustavus Adolphus, however, delayed the execution of the project.

At length the Swedes, strongly attracted to the American seaboard by the prospects of a flourishing trade, laid claim to a tract of land on the Delaware on the assumption that unoccupied land is common property. A Swedish-Dutch corporation, called the South Company, was formed, and Peter Minuit, the early governor of New Netherland, was employed to lead a Swedish colony to America. In this way Delaware was permanently settled in 1638, near the present site of Wilmington, by a band of some fifty Swedes. They built a fort and named it Christina after the young queen of Sweden.

148. Government—Class of Settlers. The Dutch looked upon the Swedes as intruders; Peter Stuyvesant conquered (1655) the Swedish settlements and New Sweden was added to New Netherland. The Dutch held New Sweden until the Duke of York acquired it as a part of New Netherland. He in turn sold it (1682) to William Penn, who desired an outlet to the sea for his colony, Pennsylvania. Penn called the province "The Three Lower Counties on the Delaware," or "The Territories."

Delaware at first sent its representatives to the Pennsylvania assembly, but was later allowed a separate legislature by William Penn. When the Revolution broke out, the Three Lower Counties declared themselves a free and independent state, taking the name of Delaware.

THE SETTLEMENT OF PENNSYLVANIA

149. The Pennsylvania Grant. The control of New Jersey by Quakers, among whom was William Penn, led directly to the settlement of Pennsylvania. William Penn was not satisfied with his interest in New Jersey and began to look wistfully toward the fair lands beyond the Delaware where he might find a Quaker colony according to his own ideas. He obtained from Charles II (1681) a grant of forty thousand square miles of territory west of the Delaware. Contrary to the modest wishes of the proprietor, the king gave to this vast territory the name of Pennsylvania, Penn's Woodlands. When Penn objected to the name of the colony, the king remarked bluntly, "Don't flatter yourself. We shall keep the name to commemorate your memorable parent." Penn's father (Admiral Penn) was distinguished for the part he had taken in bringing about the restoration of Charles II to the English throne.

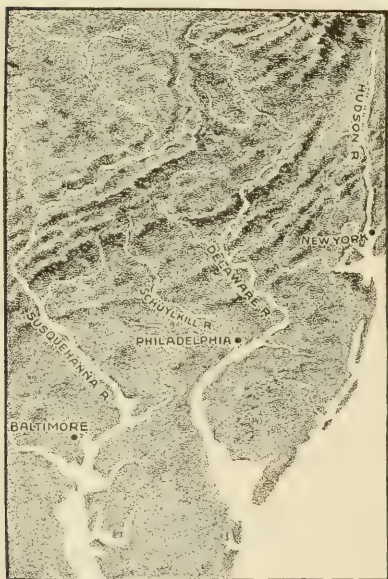
William Penn, eminent for his high social position in England, as well as for his wealth, education, and culture, was the foremost man among the Quakers and one of the most remarkable men of his time. His idea, which he called his "Holy Experiment," was to establish a free colony or Christian community, on the principle of the golden rule, which bids us do unto others as we would have them do unto us.

150. First Settlement—The Quakers. Having obtained the grant of land from the king, Penn forthwith proceeded to take possession of it. Pennsylvania was founded in 1681, on the site of the present city of Chester, by a company of some hundred English Quakers. The immigrants were cordially welcomed by the Swedish-Dutch settlers who had established here their village of Upland. Pennsylvania was founded as an asylum for persecuted English Quakers. Its first and direct object was religious freedom. The Quakers were extreme dissenters from the established Church of England. They abol-

ished all outward ceremonies, also the ministry, holding that spiritual guidance came to each individual from God Himself. They were bitterly persecuted in the mother country as well as in some of the colonies.

151. Philadelphia Founded. In 1682 Penn came to America on the ship *Welcome*. He purchased from the Swedes a neck of land between the Schuylkill and Delaware rivers and laid out a city which he called Philadelphia, or "Brotherly Love." The growth of Philadelphia was most remarkable. It soon surpassed New York, founded more than half a century previous, and for more than one hundred years it was the largest city in America. It was carefully planned by its founder and was laid out in large squares. The forest at that time covered

the land, and the walnut, chestnut, spruce, pine, etc., furnished the names for the first streets. It is said that not even one hundred dollars have been spent in widening and straightening the streets of the city, so carefully were they laid out by William Penn.



152. Treaty with the Indians—The Walking Purchase. William Penn treated the natives, who were chiefly of the Delaware stock, with great kindness and justice. He made a treaty with them which was rigidly kept on both sides for more than seventy years. The Quaker hat

and coat proved a better defense than rampart and musket. In accordance with Quaker faith no oath was taken when this

treaty was made. The parties, according to Indian custom, exchanged wampum and the savages, won by the gentle manner and kindly bearing of Penn, exclaimed, "As long as the river runs and the sun shines we will live in peace with the children of William Penn." The elm tree under which the memorable treaty was made, was blown down in 1810. A monument now marks its site.

The Quakers in every instance honorably purchased their lands from the Indians. By the so-called "Walking Purchase," Penn acquired a tract of land west of the Delaware as far inland as a man could walk in three days. The first walk of a day and a half was made by Penn with a few Friends and a body of Indians at a leisurely pace, and covered about thirty miles. After Penn's death, however, the remaining part of the three days was used in quite a different spirit. Fast runners were sent out who covered eighty-six miles. This unfair act gave rise to the first Indian hostilities in Pennsylvania.

153. Penn's Patent—His "Great Law." The Pennsylvania Patent made William Penn lord proprietor of Pennsylvania. It was modeled after that of Lord Baltimore, but did not grant such extensive powers. The principal differences between the two liberal charters were:

- (a) enactments of the Maryland Assembly became law as soon as signed by Lord Baltimore, while those of Pennsylvania required the approval of the king;
- (b) the Maryland Patent denied the right of the British government to impose taxes upon the colonists, whereas the Pennsylvania Patent expressly affirmed this power.

As an acknowledgment of his allegiance to the crown, Penn was required to pay annually two beaver skins and one-fifth of all the gold and silver that might be found in the province.

Penn's colony was founded upon very liberal principles. In accordance with these, he caused a council and an assembly to be elected by the people. This popular legislature enacted

the "Great Law," or "Charter of Privileges," which wisely provided that:

- (a) all colonists should be protected in their worship of God, and no person should be compelled to support or attend any form of religion against his will;
- (b) all resident tax-payers should have the right to vote, regardless of creed;
- (c) every child above the age of twelve should be taught some trade or useful occupation;
- (d) the death penalty should be inflicted only for murder and treason.

For the first time in the history of the world it was attempted to make every prison a place of reformation. Penn's Great Law remained the fundamental law of Pennsylvania until the Revolution.

154. Progress—Religion and Education. Pennsylvania, more than any other colony of the time, was blessed with peace, abundance, and religious and civil liberty. These happy conditions, together with the reputation of William Penn, drew a numerous population to the province from various nations, and the colony grew with unparalleled rapidity. More German immigrants came into Pennsylvania in this period than into all the rest of America during colonial times. As many as twelve thousand landed in the single year of 1749. At the outbreak of the Revolution, according to Franklin's estimate, the population consisted of one-third Quakers, one-third Germans, and one-third miscellaneous elements. This mixed population was noted for thrift, learning, and industry. The chief occupations were farming, commerce, and shipbuilding. Western Pennsylvania remained long unsettled, and no one suspected the existence of its coal and mineral wealth.

Religious toleration prevailed throughout the colony. A number of Irish Catholics were among the early arrivals, and the Holy Sacrifice of Mass was celebrated for the first time at Philadelphia in 1686.

Education was not overlooked in the original plan of government prepared by Penn, and schools were established (1683) soon after the founding of the colony.

155. Boundary Disputes. Since Pennsylvania had no sea coast, Penn secured a grant of Delaware (1682) from the Duke of York.

As his patent did not clearly fix the southern limits of his province, a boundary dispute arose with Maryland. This was finally settled by the Mason and Dixon's line long after both Baltimore and Penn were in their graves. On the north, Pennsylvania came in contact with Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New York. Connecticut rightly complained that her grant of land (1662) was infringed by Penn's patent. The boundary contention with Connecticut continued throughout the Colonial and Revolutionary periods, bringing great distress and misery to the inhabitants of the disputed territory, the Wyoming Valley. The trouble was not settled until the Connecticut cession of western lands to the United States.

Though Penn's colony flourished, it caused him much anxiety and the loss of a large fortune, for it was not free from the feuds common to proprietary colonies. Even during the lifetime of Penn, the settlers refused to pay the rents necessary to cover the heavy outlay in behalf of the province, and sought to weaken his authority. Penn returned to his native land (1701), where he passed the remaining seventeen years of his well-spent life in poverty and obscurity. After his death, the difficulties increased under his heirs, who ruled the province through deputy governors. The state of Pennsylvania bought out the rights of the Penns (1779) for about half a million dollars.

CHAPTER X

THE NEW ENGLAND GROUP OF COLONIES

THE SETTLEMENT OF MASSACHUSETTS

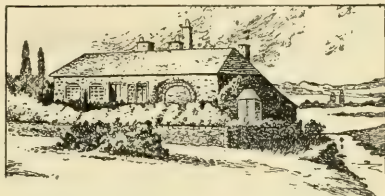
156. The Council of Plymouth. The Plymouth Company, one of the branches of the great double-headed Virginia Company, did little toward colonizing its grant of land, though an unsuccessful attempt to plant a colony was made by Gorges, under Pring and Popham, at the mouth of the Kennebec River in Maine. The Company later dissolved and a new corporation, the Council of Plymouth, was organized.

The first settlement in the territory under the jurisdiction of the Council of Plymouth was made by a band of Englishmen. Through an error, they landed at Plymouth instead of on territory belonging to the London Company, from whom they had received a grant in northern Virginia.

157. The Puritans and Separatists. A sect of English Protestants, called Puritans, had arisen during the reign of Elizabeth. They thought that the Church of England still retained too many rites of the Roman Catholic Church and protested against many of the ceremonies of worship, such as the sign of the cross, the use of vestments, the ring at marriage, kneeling in church, etc. As they desired to "purify" the service, they were called Puritans. Of these a small number refused to attend the English state church and became known as "Separatists." From this latter body came the Pilgrims, the founders of Plymouth. The Puritans in England became the political party opposed to the absolute rule of the Stuart monarchs, and were known as the Parliamentary party. Both Puritans and Separatists were sometimes called Nonconformists or Dissenters. The Declaration of James I concerning all dissenters,

"I shall make them conform or I will harry them out of the land," was soon literally put into force, and all nonconformists were persecuted.

158. The Pilgrims. A band of Puritan Separatists of the little town of Scrooby fled from religious persecution in England to Holland, where they lived, first at Amsterdam and later at Leyden. Being strangers among strangers and fearing that their children would forget their English speech and habits, they obtained permission from the London Company to settle within the limits of Virginia. They crossed from Delfshaven, Holland, to Southampton, England, from which port they set sail for America in the *Mayflower* and the *Speedwell*. The latter vessel proved unseaworthy and they were obliged to put back to Plymouth, from which port one hundred and two of them again set out in the *Mayflower*. After a stormy and perilous voyage they were finally forced to land in December on the bleak shores of Cape Cod. Here they found themselves



BREWSTER'S RESIDENCE AT SCROOBY

on territory belonging to the Council of Plymouth, instead of on the land of the London Company which they were seeking. The Plymouth Rock, called "Forefathers' Rock," on which the first Pilgrims landed, is carefully preserved under a granite canopy at Plymouth, Massachusetts.

159. The Mayflower Compact. To insure law and order in the colony which they were about to settle, the Pilgrims drew up on board the *Mayflower* a written contract pledging themselves to obey such laws as they should enact for the general good. This compact is one of the great documents in American history.

160. The First Settlement. Electing John Carver governor for the ensuing year, the intrepid little band of Pilgrims estab-

lished the first permanent settlement in Massachusetts in 1620 at Plymouth. Unlike the Virginian adventurers, the Pilgrims were accompanied by their wives and children. They expected to live and die in America. Since they had no legal title to their land, they later obtained a grant from the Council of Plymouth. The name Massachusetts is an Indian name meaning "Great Hills Place"; Plymouth was early named by Captain John Smith, after Plymouth in England.

161. Difficulties—First Thanksgiving Day. The colonists suffered severely from cold and lack of food during the first winter, and Governor Carver and half of his little band died. Still not one of the survivors thought of returning to England when the *Mayflower* again set sail in the following spring. Instead they set to work preparing the soil for the seed, and the first crop (corn, pumpkins, etc.) raised by the Pilgrims, was good though small. Deer, wild turkey, and fish were plentiful. The colonists were now sheltered in comfortable houses, and after the harvest was gathered and stored away, Governor Bradford ordered (1621) a three days' feast of thanksgiving, at which Massasoit and one hundred of his braves were guests. Thus originated the annual festival of Thanksgiving which has been regularly observed every year.

162. Plymouth Leaders—Progress—The Indians. Governor Carver was succeeded by William Bradford, the historian of the colony, who was governor of the settlement for some thirty years. Other leaders were William Brewster and the famous soldier, Miles Standish, the chosen military leader of the colony. Standish was a lion in battle, and spread terror among the hostile Indians, but was noted for his womanly tenderness in the care of the sick and wounded. Longfellow gives a good picture of him in his "Courtship of Miles Standish."

The Plymouth colonists, like the Virginians, at first established the system of holding property in common. Since this, however, proved impracticable even among the sober and industrious Puritans, the common storehouse was abolished

within a few years after the founding of the colony. Owing to the poverty of the settlers, and also to the fact that the number of Separatists in England was small, the colony grew but slowly. It finally ceased its separate existence (1691) when it was united to the Massachusetts Bay Colony.

The Indian tribes of the region belonged to the Algonquin family; fortunately for the settlers, they had been greatly reduced in number by a pestilence. In the spring the settlement was surprised by visits from two friendly savages,



A GROUP OF PILGRIMS

Samoset, who had learned a few words of English from fishermen on the coast of Maine, and Squanto, who had been previously kidnapped and taken to England. These two natives brought to the settlement Massasoit, the great chief of the Wampanoags, who made a treaty of friendship and alliance with the Pilgrims. On the other hand, Canonicus, chief of the Narragansetts, sent the colonists a declaration of war in the shape of a bundle of arrows tied with a rattlesnake skin. Governor Bradford promptly returned the skin filled with powder and shot, whereupon Canonicus treated for peace.

163. Government. The Pilgrims introduced the English town meeting. This government, a pure democracy in form, was the first of the kind in America. All the citizens gathered at the town meeting and voted on all questions directly instead of through representatives. Gradually, however, it became inconvenient for all voters to assemble at Plymouth, and a representative system, resembling the House of Burgesses, was established. The right of suffrage was at first extended to all men, but soon it was restricted by religious qualifications.

164. Salem the Second Settlement. Charles I proved even more intolerant toward the Puritans than his father James I. He imperiously dissolved his Parliament and determined to rule as he pleased. A number of Puritans, adherents of the Parliamentary party, alarmed at the king's conduct and encouraged by the example of the Pilgrims, obtained from the Council of Plymouth a grant of land. This included all the territory between the Merrimac and Charles rivers, and three miles beyond each, extending westward as far as the South Sea (Pacific). A band of some sixty Puritans settled at Salem in 1628 under John Endicott, who named his settlement after the Bible city, Salem (peace).

Endicott was bold and energetic, a rigid Puritan in principles, and severe in the execution of all the laws against those who differed in their religious belief from that of the colony. At a later time, he put to death four Quakers, and cut the red cross out of the English flag because it represented to his mind the ancient Catholic religion of England.

165. The Massachusetts Bay Colony—Charter. Charles I, perhaps glad to get rid of a large number of his troublesome subjects, confirmed (1629) the grant made by the Council of Plymouth by a charter which created the Massachusetts Bay Company. This charter was a very liberal one and gave to the Company extensive powers which in fact amounted to self-government. Since the charter did not state that the seat of government should be in England, as was the case with other

colonizing corporations, the members of the Company emigrated to New England and there became the self-governing community known as Massachusetts Bay Colony.

166. Boston, Third Settlement. John Winthrop, with a colony of one thousand Puritans, came to Salem (1630), whence he immediately moved to Charleston, and finally to the present site of Boston. Here he planted a settlement which he called "Tri-mountain" or "Tremont" (because of its triple hill), and later Boston, after the English town, the home of many of the settlers. Puritan immigration poured in and settled under the Massachusetts Bay Company at Dorchester, Cambridge, Watertown, and other places, all of which with Boston formed the Massachusetts Bay Colony.

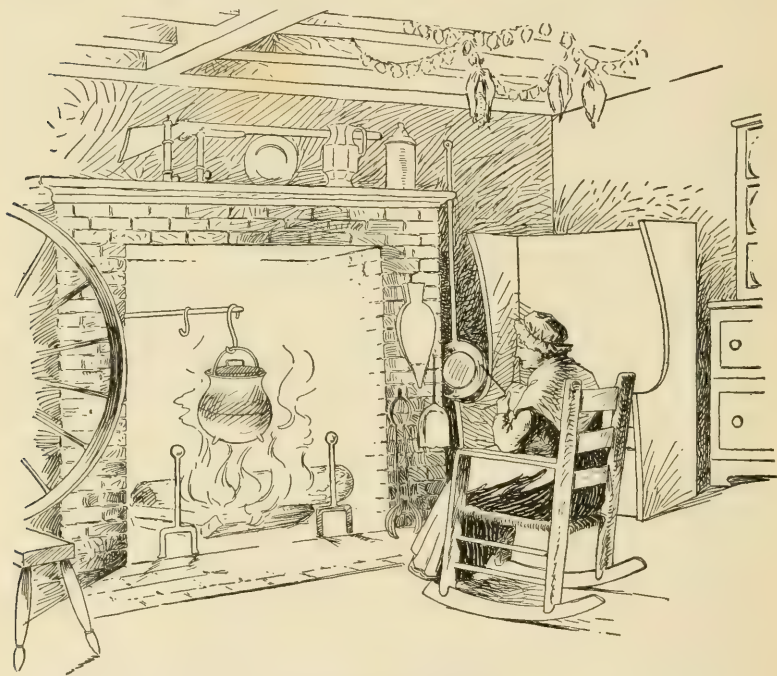
167. Towns or Townships—Government. The Puritans usually came in large communities, led by their ministers, with their plans of government well defined. They settled in parishes or townships, each about six or eight miles square. The people of each township built their homes near a church or meeting house. All public business was transacted in the church, or in the town hall.

The New England town or township, modeled after the Anglo-Saxon town of England, was the origin of our present system of townships, and was the striking feature of New England life, as the plantation was of life in the Southern Colonies. In Virginia we have the beginning of county government, while in Massachusetts we have the origin of town government.

Massachusetts was originally a charter colony in which the governor and the members of the legislature, or General Court, were elected by the freemen of the towns. Each town constituted a little commonwealth, chose its own officers, regulated its taxation and political affairs, and sent its delegates (deputies) to the General Court.

168. The New England Confederation. The various settlements of Massachusetts and Connecticut (Massachusetts Bay,

Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven) formed a confederation or military league (1643), under the name of "The United Colonies of New England" for the purpose of common defense against the French, the Dutch, and the Indians, and also against any possible attack by the despotic English monarch, upon their rights of self-government. Under the constitution of the



NEW ENGLAND KITCHEN

league, each colony was independent in its local affairs, while important matters of common interest—Indian and inter-colonial affairs—were referred to a commission of two representatives from each colony. The confederation lasted forty years and is the first experiment in united action by American colonies. It was of far-reaching importance, because it prepared

the way for the Continental Congress and for the final union of the states in 1789. It taught the colonists how to unite, and made stronger their feeling of independence.

169. Religious Intolerance. Although the Puritans had been driven by religious persecution to the New World, they showed no desire in their new home to establish religious liberty. Roman Catholics, Baptists, and Quakers were held in special abhorrence. All Jesuits and Catholic priests were forbidden to enter the colony, under penalty of banishment, and death in case of return. Parkman says: "New England Protestantism appealed to liberty and then closed the door against her."

Roger Williams, a young Salem minister, was a man of high ideals and natural ability. He advocated the separation of church from state, and full toleration in religious matters; he held that a man is responsible for his opinions only to God and to his own conscience. He also asserted that the king of England had no right to grant American Indian lands to the colonists. Because of these principles, so contrary to Puritan theory and practice, Williams was sentenced by the General Court of Massachusetts to be sent back to England. He fled to the wilderness, however, where he was befriended by the Indians. In the following year he founded Providence, the first permanent town in the present state of Rhode Island.

The peace of the colony was next disturbed by Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, a gifted woman who gathered together the women of Boston to discuss religious matters. Banished with her adherents, she sought refuge in Rhode Island. Later she moved to New York where she perished in an Indian massacre.

The Quakers were the special objects of Puritan dislike and were forbidden to enter the colony. Four of them were hanged on Boston Common. Charles II finally intervened because of his friendship for William Penn, and the persecution ceased.

170. The Salem Witchcraft. A strange delusion (1692) regarding witchcraft, intensified by the writings and sermons

of the prominent Puritan minister, Cotton Mather, gave rise to a reign of terror in the colony. Various persons, at first only children and old women, were accused of having leagued with the devil for the purpose of inflicting upon others different forms of torments. Suspicions, accusations, tortures, forced confessions of guilt, and executions followed one upon another, till the people became panic-stricken and no one felt secure. At length the colonists returned to their senses, the prison doors were thrown open, and the judges and ministers publicly confessed their error, but only after twenty persons had been executed (nineteen hanged, one pressed to death), and many others tortured and imprisoned. The memory of this event will ever be a source of shame and humiliation to the nation. (Read Longfellow's "Giles Corey.")

In Europe the belief in witchcraft was common and in Great Britain several thousand unfortunate persons suffered death for this alleged crime; the law punishing it was not repealed until 1776.

171. The Puritans and the Indians. The Indians in the earliest days of Massachusetts were friendly to the colonists. They taught the white men the methods of hunting, fishing, trapping, and traveling, and the use and cultivation of Indian corn, all of which services were very poorly requited by the settlers of Massachusetts.

The colonists looked upon the Indians, in the words of Bradford, as "only savage and brutish men who range up and down the country little otherwise than the wild beasts of the same, and whom the whites had a right to exterminate, in order to render the colony habitable to civilized man." Of course, the fierce retaliations of the savages by means of the tomahawk and scalping knife bred a pitiless spirit in the hearts of the Puritans. Some rather futile attempts were made, however, by the settlers to christianize the Indians. One of the missionaries most active in this respect was John Eliot, a minister of the Church of England, who came to Boston (1631). He studied

the native dialect, translated the Bible into the Indian tongue and gathered his converts into settlements called "towns of praying Indians." The attempts of the English to christianize the Indians begun by Eliot ended with the outbreak of the wars between the Indians and the colonists.

172. King Philip's War. On the death of the friendly Massasoit, his son, Alexander, became chief of the Wampanoags. Alexander's death soon after a visit to Plymouth caused his brother Philip to suspect foul play. In order to avenge the wrong done his people, and to check English encroachments on the Indian hunting grounds, Philip leagued with the tribes from Maine to the Hudson for the purpose of exterminating all the whites in New England. The consequence was a horrible Indian war (1675) noted for its cruelties on both sides. It lasted for two years, until the death of King Philip, who was hunted from place to place. He was finally shot by a treacherous Indian at Mount Hope (Bristol) in Rhode Island. King Philip's skull, cut off by Captain Church, was exposed on a pole at Plymouth for many years. His wife and youthful son were sold into slavery and about a thousand Indians were slaughtered. The prosperous Wampanoags, Narragansetts, and other New England tribes, except the friendly Mohegans, were scattered. The power of the New England Indians was forever broken. The colonists, too, especially those of Massachusetts, keenly felt the brunt of the conflict: out of ninety towns, twelve were utterly destroyed, while forty others had been the scenes of horrible massacres. More than one thousand men and a great many women and children perished during this period.

173. Massachusetts Incurs Royal Disfavor. After a time Massachusetts incurred the disfavor of the crown, because of the following facts:

- (a) the colony, having long been left to follow its own course, had built up a strong and independent government, the republican tendencies of which displeased the king;

- (b) it disregarded the Navigation Acts, which, as in Virginia and other English colonies, crippled trade;
- (c) it had welcomed two of the escaped judges (Goffe and Whalley) who had sentenced Charles I to death;
- (d) it had extended its dominion over New Hampshire and purchased Maine, in spite of the king's opposition, from Gorges; and
- (e) worst of all, in the king's estimation, the colony was notoriously opposed to the Church of England, allowing only Congregational Church members to vote or to hold office. Accordingly, the king proceeded to take measures for humbling his independent subjects.

Charles II, therefore, withdrew the charter of Massachusetts (1684), making it a royal colony. He died, however, before all of his plans could be carried out, but they were furthered by King James II, who (1686) imposed upon the colony its first royal governor, the tyrannical Sir Edmund Andros, the governor-general of the whole of New England. On the occasion of the deposition of James II (1689) the people of New England imprisoned Andros at Boston, and later sent him back to England, whereupon the old forms of government were quietly resumed. After a lapse of two years, King William (1691) granted a new charter to Massachusetts, annexing to it Maine, Nova Scotia, and Plymouth. Under this charter the colony was allowed to hold town meetings and to elect a legislature, but the governor was to be appointed by the king; religious toleration, the right of suffrage, and the holding of office were permitted to all except Roman Catholics.

The British government, wishing to unite all its northern colonies for the sake of security against the French, had sent, as we have seen, Sir Edmund Andros to rule absolutely over the whole of New England, as well as New York and New Jersey. He was notorious for his tyranny and his arbitrary conduct. The royal governors succeeding him were generally disliked and in constant trouble with the legislature or General

Court. These difficulties continued to increase until they finally ended with the opening battle of the Revolution (1775).

174. Education. The Massachusetts people early provided for the education of their children by establishing (1647) free schools. In fact, to Massachusetts must be attributed the origin of the United States public school system. Many of the Massachusetts settlers were university graduates and it was but natural that they deemed a college a necessity. The General Court gave a whole year's tax, and John Harvard, a young clergyman, bequeathed his books and half his estate toward the founding of Harvard College (Harvard University), the first in the United States, though not the first on the continent. The college was named Harvard out of gratitude toward its benefactor, and the name of Newtown, in which town it was located, was changed to Cambridge in honor of Cambridge University in England. The printing press set up in Cambridge in 1639 was the first in the United States, but not the first in America.

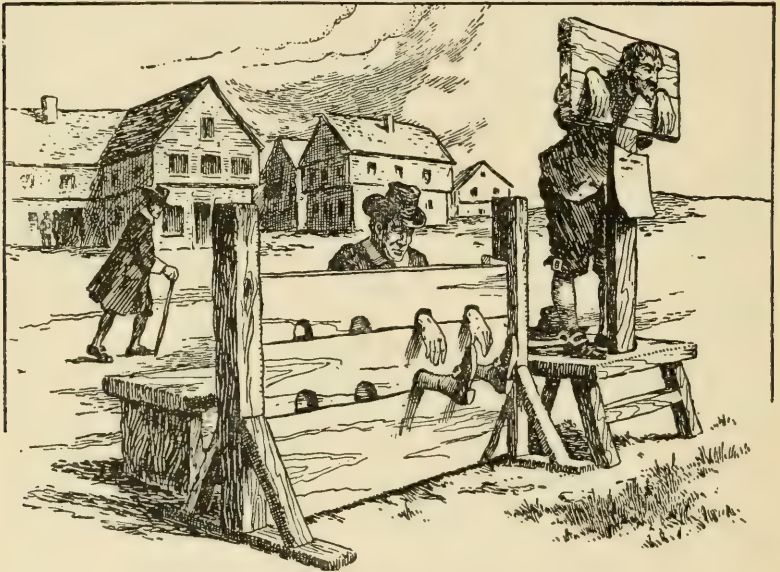
175. Character—Manners and Customs. The Puritan founders of Massachusetts, though exceedingly bigoted and tyrannical toward all believers in any creed except their own, were characterized by industry, sobriety, enterprise, and religion. They came to settle permanently in the New World and to establish there a church and government according to their own ideas.

The Puritan settlers, by reason of their peculiar religious views, were of a gloomy nature, and their manners were severe and repelling. Every town had its public whipping post; many offenses were punished by the stocks; gossips and scolds were bound and gagged at their own doors; fines were exacted for the wearing of too costly clothing.

The Puritan, unlike the Cavalier and the aristocratic settler of the southern colonies, did not attire himself in satins, velvets, lace ruffles, gold buckles, or plumes, but rather in a somber-hued tunic, loose knee trousers, and long woolen stockings.

For out-of-door wear this costume was completed by a steeple-crowned hat and a short cloak. All persons were forbidden, on the Sabbath, to run or to walk anywhere "save reverently to and from church." These laws, though stern in themselves, produced a hardy race.

176. Industry. The rocky soil and cold climate of New England were not favorable to rural life, hence the people, un-



THE STOCKS AND PILLORY

like those of the southern colonies, who lived on broad plantations, dwelt in towns, surrounded by the small farms of the peasantry. The swift running streams encouraged manufacturing; the good fishing off the coast led to a prosperous export trade in dried fish; the wild animals of the forest furnished a profitable trade in furs; while the fine timber of the woodlands encouraged the shipbuilding industry, for which New England is still famous.

THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW HAMPSHIRE AND MAINE

177. Founding of New Hampshire. New Hampshire was permanently settled at Dover and Portsmouth in 1623 by people from England under the proprietaries of Sir Ferdinando Gorges and John Mason. The Council of Plymouth granted Gorges and Mason the territory extending between the Merri-mac and the Kennebec rivers, and sixty miles inland. The settlement, made for the personal gain of the proprietors, was prompted by the prospects of a flourishing fish and fur trade.

Later the owners (1629) divided their grant, Gorges selecting the country east of the Piscataqua River, which was called Maine (mainland), probably to distinguish it from the many islands along the coast. Mason held as his portion the country west of the river, naming it New Hampshire after Hampshire, the English county which had been his home in England.

Adherents of Mrs. Anne Hutchinson eventually settled at Exeter and soon other settlers from Massachusetts established themselves at Hampton. Many years later (1719) immigrants from northern Ireland settled at Londonderry. They introduced the manufacture of linen, which was soon industriously practiced on a little flax wheel by the thrifty housewife of every log cabin.

178. Government—Religion—Manners and Customs. New Hampshire and Maine, while proprietary colonies under Gorges and Mason, were, on the whole, left to follow their own course. Massachusetts claimed all of the territory, and to make good a portion of this claim bought Maine from the heirs of Gorges (1677), after which event the latter colony continued a part of Massachusetts until its admission into the Union. New Hampshire remained for a long time under the protection of Massachusetts. After severing its connection with that settlement it became a separate royal colony, and continued such until the Revolution.

The settlers of New Hampshire belonged for the most part

to the Church of England. At the present city of Calais, Maine, the French, under De Monts and Champlain, erected a number of buildings including a small chapel. In this chapel the Holy Sacrifice of the Mass was offered for the first time on New England soil in 1604.

Since New Hampshire was so intimately united with Massachusetts, it has, necessarily, almost a common history with it; hence the study of the customs, manners, and occupations of Massachusetts will fairly acquaint us with those of New Hampshire. The people of New Hampshire, however, were not so rigid in their laws and ways of living as those of Massachusetts. They were religious after the Puritan fashion (Congregationalists), and thrifty, resolute, and brave.

THE SETTLEMENT OF CONNECTICUT

179. First Permanent Settlement. The territory of Connecticut, claimed by the Dutch because of Henry Hudson's and Adrian Block's explorations, was first occupied at Hartford, by a company of Dutch traders from New Amsterdam. This settlement, however, was only temporary. Connecticut was first permanently colonized in 1633, at Windsor, by English traders, under the authority of the Governor of Plymouth and the leadership of William Holmes. Later, under the proprietaries of Lord Say-and-Seal, Lord Brooke, and others, and under the leadership of John Winthrop, son of Governor Winthrop, Saybrook was founded (1635) by people from Massachusetts. The two proprietors made no further effort to plant colonies in the domain granted them by the Council of Plymouth, but immigration from Massachusetts, already begun without their permission, continued to people the Connecticut valley. Connecticut derived its name from the Connecticut River, an Indian name signifying "Long River."

180. Winthrop's and Hooker's Ideas—Consequences. Governor Winthrop of Massachusetts, aristocratic in his political views, held that a large part of the people was unfit to have

a share in the government. He thought that the best and wisest persons only, especially the clergy, should hold the controlling part in the government.

Thomas Hooker, the eloquent pastor of the Puritan church in Newtown (Cambridge) was, on the contrary, democratic in his views. He held that all the people ought, directly or indirectly, to take part in the government, either by holding office or by voting.

Repelled by the autocratic government of Massachusetts and attracted by the promising fur trade and the fertility of the Connecticut valley, bodies of Massachusetts colonists migrated from Newtown, Watertown, and Dorchester to Connecticut, and founded the towns of Wethersfield (1634), Windsor (1635), and Hartford (1636). The settlement of Hartford was the most important of the three towns thus founded. Led by their minister, Thomas Hooker, some one hundred men, women, and children journeyed through the unbroken wilderness from Cambridge to Hartford, driving their flocks before them.

Thus we find that the settlement of Connecticut was prompted by the prospects of greater civil liberty, a promising fur trade, and the desire for the establishment of new homes in the fertile Connecticut valley.

181. The Connecticut Constitution. The three river towns of Windsor, Wethersfield, and Hartford leagued together



JOHN WINTHROP

under the name of Connecticut Colony. They adopted (1639) a written constitution which they called "The Fundamental Orders." This was the first written American constitution and was drawn up independently of King, Parliament, Charter, or mother colony. It formed the United Settlements of Connecticut into a little republic having a government, in general, like that of Massachusetts. Connecticut, however, required no religious test for citizenship.

182. The New Haven Colony. New Haven, another independent colony, was founded (1638) on Long Island Sound, by a company of English traders—Puritans of the strictest type—under the leadership of their minister John Davenport and a London merchant, Theophilus Eaton. This colony based its government upon the Bible, adopting the Mosaic code of laws, and like the Massachusetts Bay Colony allowed none but church members to vote. Its strange rules have been the object of ridicule under the name of "Blue Laws." These were severe laws which regulated not only the ordinary political actions, but also the opinions, religious practices, cut of hair, style of dress, and many other minute affairs of the people, fixing even the occasion on which a mother might kiss her child. Twelve offenses were punishable by death, less serious violations of law by the rack, the stocks, the whipping-post, the branding-iron, etc.

183. The Connecticut Charter. After the restoration of Charles II to the English throne, the younger Winthrop was sent to England to petition the king for a charter which would establish Connecticut as an independent colony under the famous Fundamental Orders, already adopted by the three towns. Winthrop secured a most liberal charter, which in reality made Connecticut a little republic in which the people elected their own governors and made their own laws. It so well satisfied the people that it afterwards became the state constitution, remaining in force till 1818.

When Sir Edmund Andros became governor-general of the

whole of New England, the Connecticut charter was annulled and the colony became a royal province. Andros went to Hartford and demanded of the assembly the much treasured charter. It is said that during the course of a heated debate which was prolonged till after dark, the candles were suddenly blown out, and when they were re-lighted the charter had disappeared. It had been hidden in the hollow of a tree famous ever after as the "Charter Oak." Andros no longer had a charter to suppress, but the colony no longer had one to appeal to. Thus Connecticut passed under the despotic sway of Governor Andros, as a royal province, even though the charter lay hidden within its boundaries. The Charter Oak was blown down in a storm (1856), but a marble tablet now marks the site where it stood. When James II was deposed, Andros lost his authority, and the colony resumed its charter government.

184. The Pequot War. The Connecticut settlers were repeatedly attacked by the powerful Pequot Indians, who appeared to be plotting the extermination of the English. Consequently Major John Mason (1637), with a band of about one hundred men, attacked the savages. The Pequots tried to induce the Mohegans and the Narragansetts to join them, but Roger Williams, forgetting the wrong done him by Massachusetts, used his great influence with these tribes, and they refused to help the Pequots in their war against the colonists of Connecticut. Major Mason finally destroyed the entire tribe.

185. Religion—Manners and Customs—Education. The colonizers of Connecticut were Puritans of the Congregational type. Other Christian denominations were merely tolerated and religious freedom received only a scant and reluctant recognition. No Catholic priest was allowed to abide in its domain.

The settlers of Connecticut belonged to the same class of people as those of Massachusetts. Hence, they were similar

to them in manners and customs, though perhaps less intolerant in religious matters, and more liberal in political affairs.

Education received early attention in Connecticut. Free schools were established in 1650, and Yale College, the third in the United States, was founded at New Haven (1701).

THE SETTLEMENT OF RHODE ISLAND

186. Founding of Rhode Island—The Rhode Island Charter. When Roger Williams fled to the wilderness in mid-winter in order to escape being transported to England, he and his five companions sought refuge in the hospitable tent of Massasoit, on Narragansett Bay. At the opening of spring, he procured from his red friends a tract of land upon which he founded a town (1636) for the purpose of greater religious and civil liberty. He called his settlement Providence, in gratitude for God's mercy which had thus provided for him. Rhode Island was probably named after the island of Rhodes in the Mediterranean, or possibly after "Roode Eyelandt" (Red Island), a name which was given by the Dutch to a large island at the entrance of Narragansett Bay.

Further bands of exiles led respectively by William Codrington and Mrs. Anne Hutchinson bought from the Indians the island of Rhode Island and there planted the colonies of Portsmouth and Newport. A fourth colony was founded by Greene and Gorton at Warwick south of Providence.

The various settlements established in Rhode Island were at first voluntary associations, purely democratic in form, in which everything was decided by the votes of the majority. When Roger Williams visited England as agent of the settlers, however, he procured (1644) from a Parliamentary commission a charter which united the colonies under the name of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations. This granted the people the right to elect their own governors and to rule themselves by such form of government as they thought best. The charter was confirmed by Charles II, and remained for one

hundred and eighty years (1663-1843) the supreme law of Rhode Island.

187. Difficulties—Government. The colony suffered greatly at the time of King Philip's War, during which Providence was burned and other settlements were laid waste. The Great Swamp Fight, which broke the Indian Confederacy, took place on Rhode Island soil and King Philip was slain by treachery at Mount Hope. The peace of Rhode Island was also much disturbed by disputes with the neighboring colonies, Massachusetts and Connecticut, each of which claimed part of its territory. The colony finally succeeded in fixing its boundaries much as they are at present. Owing to differences in religious matters Rhode Island was furthermore refused admission to the New England Confederacy.

When Sir Edmund Andros extended his Viceroyalty over all of New England, Rhode Island became a royal colony (1686). After the overthrow of Andros it resumed its liberal charter, under which it continued to govern itself until long after the Revolution.

188. Religion—Class of People. The first Baptist church in America was founded by Roger Williams in Rhode Island and the Baptist denomination was the most influential in the colony. The charter granted religious freedom to all. For a time however (from 1719 till the Revolution), Catholics and Jews were denied the right to vote, but were allowed freedom of worship.

The settlers of Rhode Island, though much more liberal in their moral and civil principles, resembled the people of the mother colony in their customs. The first institution of higher learning was Brown University (founded 1764).

CHAPTER XI

INTER-COLONIAL WARS

A BRIEF SURVEY



FRENCH AND INDIANS

189. French Claims—Posts. France, through the labors of her loyal subjects, had established a claim to New France (including Acadia, Canada, and the Mississippi Valley), a vast region stretching from the mouth of the St. Lawrence around the English colonies to the mouth of the Mississippi, and thence to the Rio Grande. The east and west boundaries were the Alleghany and the Rocky Mountains. France based her claim upon:

- (a) discoveries and explorations made under the patronage and at the expense of the kings, the nobility, and the Church of France;
- (b) actual occupation, though only by widely scattered settlements;
- (c) the express consent of the Indians, whom the French did not dispossess of their lands; and upon the conversion of many Indian tribes.

Thus we find that the French were by no means idle while the English, Dutch, and Swedes were planting the famous thirteen original colonies along the Atlantic coast. In fact, they were actively engaged in building up a French empire on the American continent. We have also seen that they took actual possession of New France by numerous, though widely scattered settlements, comprising many fortresses and more than sixty military, trading, and missionary posts—all in a



region wholly uninhabited by the English. These posts were located at points of military importance:

- (a) Mackinac and Sault Ste. Marie were established on the older routes of the northern waters;
- (b) Detroit controlled the more direct routes of the Mississippi;
- (c) Forts Miami and St. Joseph were located at important routes of travel;
- (d) Cahokia, Kaskaskia, and Chartres in Illinois were trading centers;
- (e) Vincennes was a stronghold on the Wabash River;
- (f) Mobile, New Orleans, and Fort Rosalia upheld the French power on the Gulf.

190. The Two Nations as Rivals. The French and the English in North America differed in race and religion and were

by no means on friendly terms, owing to conflicting interests which may be summed up as follows:

- (a) the two nations were rivals in the flourishing fishing industry of the northern Atlantic waters;
- (b) they were rivals in the rich fur trade of Acadia and northern Maine;
- (c) both nations claimed possession of the Ohio Valley.

Under such conditions peace between the French and the English in America was impossible. The ultimate outcome of the standing enmity between the two nations was a great strife for supremacy, in the four Inter-Colonial Wars.

191. Causes for These Wars—Comparative Strength of the Rivals. The principal causes for the first three of the Inter-Colonial Wars may be generally attributed to the hostile relations between the rival colonists, which were kindled into action by war between the mother countries.

The English were disunited by jealousies and conflicting interests, and these conditions rendered it difficult to raise a military force. The French, on the contrary, were firmly united under one government centered at Quebec. The English were supported by the Iroquois nations only, while the French had as allies the numerous Indian tribes of Canada and Maine. The English, however, owing to their growing population, industries, wealth, and superior resources, particularly the powerful navy of the mother country, were far better prepared for the struggle than the French. The main strength of the latter lay in the scattered military posts, each of which was made up of a handful of soldiers, a number of traders, and a few hardy peasants.

The population of New France, partly because of geographical conditions, increased but slowly, and numbered only about eighty thousand in 1754. In marked contrast, the English colonies contained at that time more than one million people. Missionary enthusiasm, the spirit of adventure, and the prospects of gain, principally through the fur trade (which industry was

avored by geographical conditions) increased the wandering and adventurous tendencies of the French settlers, and did not advance self-governing methods. The English colonists, on the contrary, were characterized by a colonizing spirit, which sought material gain and eventual civil strength in the toilsome process of building homes in a new land.

KING WILLIAM'S WAR (1689-1697)

192. Cause—Time—Scene. When King James II of England was driven from the throne, he fled to Louis XIV of France. William of Orange, son-in-law of James II, and his wife Mary, became rulers of England. The French King defended the deposed English King and the consequence was war between France and England, which spread to the English and French colonies in America. The French, with their Algonquin and Abnaki allies, fought against the English, supported by the Iroquois. The war continued for a period of eight years and was fought on the soil of the Iroquois territory, New England, and the adjoining borders of the French possessions.

193. Principal Events—Outcome. There was bitter warfare in the Iroquois region; a party of pagan Iroquois in a midnight massacre devastated Lachine, while the French and Indians surprised and destroyed Schenectady. A series of attacks conducted by bands of French and Indians laid waste Doyer, Pemaquid, Salmon Falls, and Casco (now Portland). The first Colonial Congress, representing Massachusetts, New York, Plymouth, and Connecticut, made a threefold plan for the conquest of Canada. A naval force under William Phipps, governor of Massachusetts, took Port Royal but was unsuccessful in its attack on Quebec. The attempt to capture Montreal by forces from New York was also a failure.

These two defeats and the retaking of Port Royal by the French put an end to active warfare except in the east. There the Indian allies of the French kept the English terrorized, even sacking Haverhill, less than thirty miles from Boston.

Among the thrilling stories of those days of savage warfare, one of the most notable was that of the Dustin family at the Haverhill massacre. Mr. Dustin secured the safety of seven of his children by telling them to run ahead, while he, retreating slowly, kept the Indians back with his gun. Mrs. Dustin, who was unable to escape, saw her house burned and her infant child dashed to death against a tree, while she was carried away captive. Later, she and two companions, after killing ten Indians, succeeded in escaping.

The war was finally ended by a treaty of peace between the French and the English, signed at Ryswick, Holland, May 20, 1697. Colonial boundaries remained unchanged. Neither had gained territory, and the old causes for enmity remained.

QUEEN ANNE'S WAR (1702-1713)

194. Cause—Time—Scene. Queen Anne of England declared war against France and Spain. This war fanned into flames a war between their respective colonies in America, where the old enmity, occasioned by the conflicting claims of territory still existed. The war lasted eleven years and was fought in the North, on the border of Canada and New England, and in the South, on Carolina and Spanish soil.

Many of the Iroquois had become sincere Catholics and a law passed in New York (1700) prohibiting any Catholic missionary under penalty of death to enter the territory of the Iroquois, induced these Indians to sign a treaty with the authorities of Canada (1701). By this treaty the Iroquois refused to attack the French and the Indians of Canada.

195. Principal Events—Outcome. A New England raid into the Canadian and the Indian territory brought the northern natives down upon Maine, New Hampshire, and into the very heart of Massachusetts, laying waste Wells, Saco, Casco, Deerfield, and Haverhill. The New Englanders retaliated by capturing Port Royal. Their effort to take Quebec, however, again proved a failure. The English of South Carolina

attacked the Spanish in Florida, while the Spanish attempted to capture Charleston. Nothing was gained on either side.

The peace of Utrecht, Holland (1713) put an end to Queen Anne's War. By it Acadia, Newfoundland, and the borders of Hudson Bay were ceded to the English. Henceforth Acadia became known as Nova Scotia, while Port Royal was named Annapolis in honor of Queen Anne. The treaty of Utrecht, like that of Ryswick, left the boundary limits between the French and the English undecided.

KING GEORGE'S WAR (1744-1748)

196. Cause—Time—Events. War having broken out between Great Britain and France, conflicting interests between their colonies in America brought about the third colonial war. It lasted four years and was named after the reigning sovereign of England, George II.

The one great event of this war was the capture of the powerful French fort, Louisburg, by English and colonial troops numbering four thousand. Louisburg, sometimes, like Quebec, called the "Gibraltar of America," was by far the most powerful fortress in America at the time. It had cost the French more than five million dollars. Its position at the town and harbor of Louisburg, on Cape Breton Island, made it the guardian of the St. Lawrence and a constant menace to English fishing fleets.

197. Outcome of the War. The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) ended the war. By it England gave back Louisburg to the French in return for Madras in India and the payment of the colonial debt incurred by the war. The boundaries between the French and the English were again left undecided, and the germ of a new war still remained. The giving back of Louisburg to the French in exchange for a foreign possession was one of the first events which led the English colonies to see that American affairs should be settled on this side of the Atlantic and not by a power thousands of miles away.

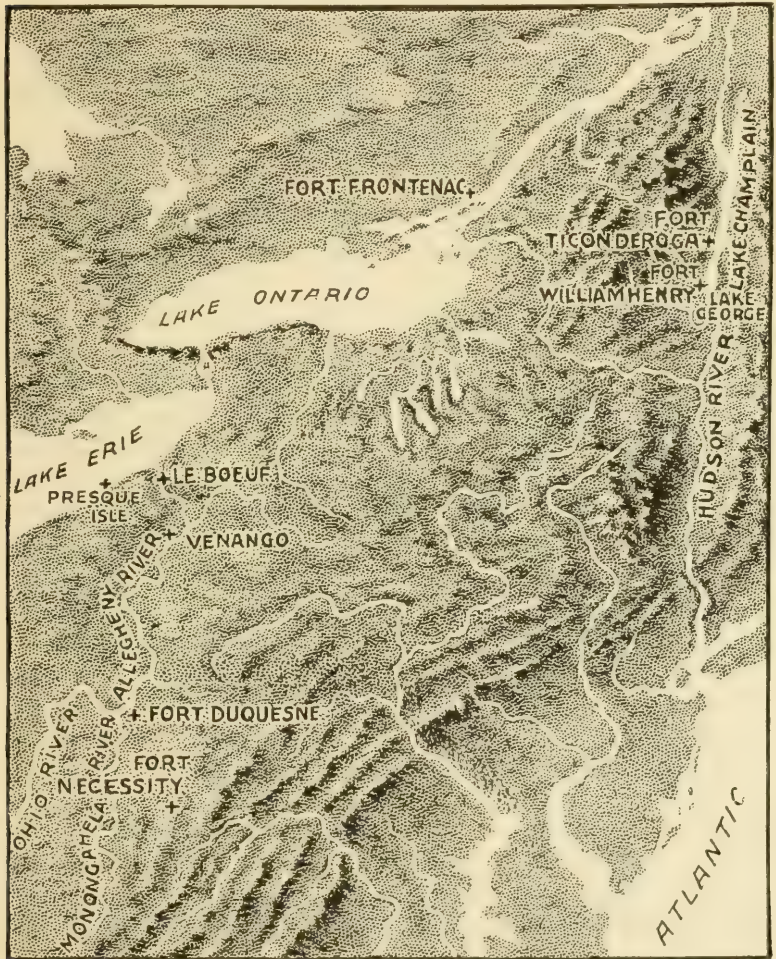
FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR (1754-1763)



198. Significance of the War. The French and Indian War was the most important of the four inter-colonial wars. The three earlier colonial wars were caused by contentions between the mother countries. But this time the colonies went to war on their own account. The other three wars had settled nothing, while this war was to decide which of the two nations, the French or the English, should be supreme in North America. In this conflict the Indians, with the exception of the Iroquois who remained neutral, united with the French against the English. For this reason the struggle which resulted is known as the French and Indian War.

199. Conflicting Claims—Causes. The English viewed the chain of French forts, which checked their colonization in the west, with alarm. They had by this time extended their settlements as far west as the Alleghanies. A dispute concerning the ownership of the Ohio valley soon arose between the two rival colonies. The French claimed this great region as a part of the discovery of Father Marquette and La Salle, while at the same time the English claimed it as a part of Virginia, granted by the early charters, which were based on the Cabot discoveries. They furthermore claimed it on the ground that the territory belonged to the Iroquois who were

considered subjects of Great Britain. In order to make good their claims to the disputed territory, the English organized



the Ohio Company, composed of prominent Virginians, who received from George II a grant of land between the Kanawha

and the Monongahela rivers, for the purpose of trade and colonization. The company at once sent out explorers and prepared to take possession of the upper Ohio valley. The French promptly resolved to stop the movement. They buried leaden plates, inscribed with the claim of France, along the Alleghany and Ohio rivers, to the mouth of the Great Miami and began a new line of forts, including Presque Isle, La Boeuf, and Venango, which extended from Erie on Lake Erie to the point where the Alleghany and the Monongahela rivers meet to form the Ohio, the present site of Pittsburg. This point, located at the head of inland navigation, was, with good reason, styled the "Gateway of the West." Both parties understood the advantage of controlling it; both were determined to seize and fortify it.

Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia alarmed at the activity displayed by the French, sent to Fort La Boeuf George Washington, a young Virginian, to inform the French commander that he was building on English territory and would do well to depart peaceably. Washington returned from his perilous journey with a refusal from St. Pierre, the French commander. The Ohio Company now began to build a fort at the "Gateway of the West." The French drove them off and erected Fort Duquesne. Washington was sent with a small force to intercept the progress of the French, but was defeated. Being forced to surrender at Fort Necessity (July 4, 1754), he returned to Virginia.

200. The Albany Plan of Union. For the first time we find all the colonies working together. A convention of the northern colonies met at Albany, at which Benjamin Franklin proposed a union of the colonies under a president appointed by the crown and a council chosen by the people. His plan of action, however, was rejected by the king as well as by the colonists.

Franklin, who was a delegate from Pennsylvania, prepared and printed in his "Pennsylvania Gazette," a device which

represented the thirteen colonies in the form of a snake cut in pieces, with the motto "Unite or Die."

201. War Declared. The defeat of Washington at Fort Mifflin practically began the struggle between France and England in America, but war was not formally declared between the two nations until the spring of 1756. France now sent over the distinguished Marquis Montcalm to take command of her forces. On the part of England, the war on both sides of the ocean was skillfully managed by one of the greatest statesmen the world has ever seen, William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham. He not only furnished the American army with money and competent commanders, but also managed to keep the main strength of France busily engaged in the European struggle while English fleets were attacking her and English armies were driving her from both America and India.



LOUISBURG

202. Five Points of Attack.

The physical features of the country and the situation of the French clearly indicated five points of attack: Acadia and Louisbourg, Duquesne, Crown Point and Ticonderoga, Niagara, and Quebec. All of these points finally yielded.

203. Acadia and Louisbourg. Acadia was inhabited by peaceful Catholic peasants. England had guaranteed them the free exercise of their religion and the privilege of not bearing arms against their French countrymen in Canada. They refused to take the oath of allegiance to England, because this would deprive them of these two privileges. The English forthwith resolved to expel them from the country, which cruel measure was successfully carried out. Longfellow relates the sad story of these unhappy exiles in his "Evangeline."

Forces under Generals Wolfe and Amherst took Louisburg after a severe bombardment and this made possible a naval attack on Quebec.

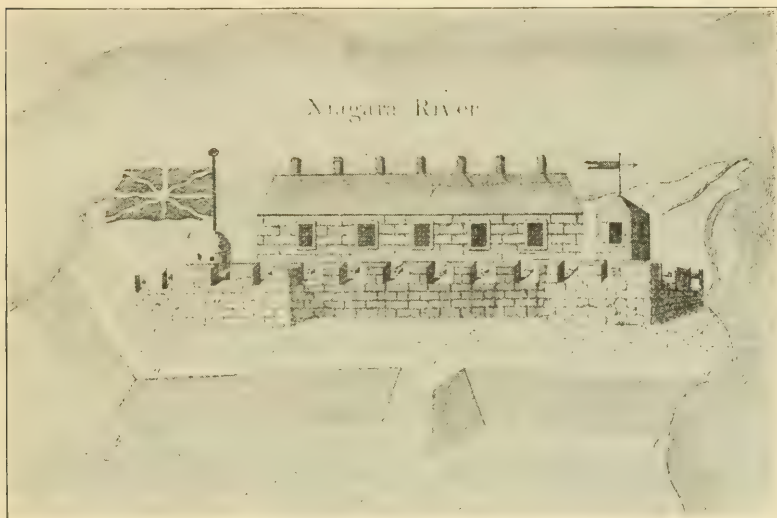
204. Fort Duquesne. This fort was the key to the West, and its capture by the English was therefore important. This "Gateway of the West" was at first unsuccessfully attacked (1755) by a combined English and colonial force under General Braddock. Braddock was a brave officer, but he was utterly ignorant of Indian warfare, and too conceited to take any advice from those who were skilled in it. Despising Washington's suggestions, Braddock ordered his army to march on with drums beating and flags flying. The savages never met an enemy in open battle, but fired at him from behind rocks, trees, and bushes, being always on the alert to take him unguarded. Thus Braddock blundered into a French and Indian ambush near Fort Duquesne and his army was cut to pieces. He himself was numbered among the seven hundred slain. Total destruction of the army was averted only by the skill of Washington. A second expedition led by General Forbes, with Washington in command of the Virginia troops, captured the fort (1758). The name of the post was changed to Pittsburg in honor of William Pitt, the prime minister of England.

205. Crown Point and Ticonderoga. These two strongholds, controlling the route to and from Canada, left New York as well as New England exposed to French invasion. The first expedition against Ticonderoga, in command of General Abercrombie suffered a disastrous defeat owing to the inefficiency of its commander, who tarried in the rear while the battle raged in front. One year after the disgraceful defeat of Abercrombie a large army of English under General Amherst compelled the French to evacuate both Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

In 1757 Montcalm had swept down from Canada and captured the British fort, William Henry, at the head of Lake

George. He promised the British troops that he would safeguard their retreat to Fort Edward, but on leaving the fort, the English troops were attacked by the Indians. Some sixty or seventy were massacred despite Montcalm's attempts to restrain his savage allies.

206. Fort Niagara. This fort, situated on the portage between lakes Erie and Ontario, protected the great fur trade of the upper Lakes and the West. It finally surrendered to



FORT NIAGARA

the English under Sir William Johnson, who was aided by his friends, the Iroquois Indians.

207. The Fall of Quebec. Quebec, the strongest fortification in Canada, controlled the navigation of the St. Lawrence and largely decided the possession of that province. This last and most important point, commanded by the able General Montcalm, was finally captured by the gallant General Wolfe after a desperate battle.

Quebec was a strongly fortified place. The only way the English could gain access to it was to scale a high and almost perpendicular rock. Wolfe at last found a steep pathway leading to the summit of the fortress. Over this he succeeded in getting his army to the "Plains of Abraham," where he surprised and captured the garrison. Both brave generals were slain,—Wolfe, rejoicing in his dying breath that the victory was his, and Montcalm thankful that he would not survive to see the surrender of Quebec.



THE TAKING OF QUEBEC

While in his boat on his way to attack Quebec Wolfe quoted from Gray's *Elegy*:—

The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour,
The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

When he had finished he said: "Gentlemen, I would rather be the author of that poem than to have the glory of beating the French tomorrow."

Montcalm was buried in the chapel of the Ursuline convent. On the monument to Wolfe and Montcalm in Quebec are these words: "Valor gave a united death, History a united fame, Posterity a united monument."

208. Outcome of the War. The treaty of peace at Paris (1763) marked the close of the French and Indian War and



DEATH OF WOLFE

From the painting by Benjamin West

ended French claims and occupancy in North America. By this treaty:

- (a) France gave to England all the territory east of the Mississippi except two islands south of Newfoundland and to Spain all her territory west of the Mississippi;
- (b) Spain gave Florida to England in exchange for Cuba.

The British possessions in America now extended from the Gulf of Mexico to the Polar Sea and from the Mississippi River to the Atlantic Ocean.

209. Pontiac's War. Immediately after the war, the Indians in the valley of the Great Lakes finally united under Pontiac

against the English who lived near Detroit. The border settlements of Pennsylvania and Virginia were laid waste and hundreds of families were driven from their homes or massacred. After fighting desperately for a time the Indians begged for peace. Pontiac fled, but was killed by a Peorian Indian. This ended the war.

210. Effects of the War. Besides securing for the English the supremacy in America, the war had many other far-reaching effects, namely:

- (a) English language, laws, and liberty were planted everywhere on the American continent;
- (b) a bond of union among the colonists was created;
- (c) the colonists had learned that the American troops were as fearless and capable as were the British regulars;
- (d) a body of colonial officers was trained in the art of war. This training eventually served them in good stead at the outbreak of the Revolution;
- (e) France, swayed by wounded pride and loss of political and commercial interests, volunteered to aid the colonies in throwing off English authority;
- (f) an enormous debt was created. This caused the levying of new taxes, and thus became the direct cause of the Revolution.



WOLFE'S PISTOL

CHAPTER XI

A SUMMARY OF COLONIAL DEVELOPMENT

211. Extent of Colonial Territory—Population. At the close of the French and Indian War (1763) the thirteen original colonies, now all under English rule, occupied a strip of land stretching from Maine to Florida and from the Atlantic to the Mississippi. The colonial population, during the one and one-half centuries ensuing between the founding of Jamestown (1607) and the close of the French and Indian War (1763) increased slowly but steadily to about two million souls, one-fourth of whom were slaves. The Mason and Dixon's line divided the population into nearly equal parts. Virginia was the most populous colony (300,000), Massachusetts was second in population, Pennsylvania third, and Georgia, the youngest colony, had the smallest population (5000). It is an important fact of American history that the colonial population was made up of a mixture of many nationalities, the mingling of which tended greatly toward broadening the views of the people. Thus was developed a thrifty and wholesome race for the future States and Nation. Nearly all the people in New England were English, though there were some French Huguenots in the cities. Some Germans settled in New York and the Carolinas, but the greater number of them went to Pennsylvania. Many emigrants from the north of Ireland settled in Pennsylvania, in the Carolinas, and in Virginia. There were many Swedes in Delaware. The Irish were found in nearly every colony, but the greater number were in the middle colonies.

212. Social Rank. The colonists had come from countries where there were various classes of society, and had brought

with them a belief in rank. Hence lines of social rank were strictly drawn in most of the colonies. Although class distinctions were manifest, it was not uncommon for a youth, by dint of ability, thrift, and industry, to rise from the lower ranks of life and take his place among the higher classes. The common people were styled "goodman" or "goodwife," while the titles of "Mr." or "Mrs." were reserved for



MANSION AT WESTOVER, VIRGINIA

ministers and their wives, and the gentlefolks generally. The ruling class was composed, in New England, of magistrates, ministers, and other professional men; in New York of the same classes with the addition of the patroons and great landholders along the Hudson; while in the South the owners of the great plantations were uppermost in society. Professional men ranked second to them. The middle class constituted the

great majority of the people, especially in the northern and middle colonies. This class was composed of small farmers, traders, shop-keepers, and fishermen, and was generally distinguished for prosperity, good moral standards, and desire for education. It was, as it were, the frame-work of our present republic. Below the middle rank were the indentured white servants. These, after serving out their term of forced labor, acquired the rights of freemen, and many of them merged into the great middle class and became good citizens. This was especially true of the class known as "Freewillers." Freewillers were those indentured servants who, of their own free will, engaged to serve several years in payment of some debt or for their passage across the sea. The negro slave held the lowest place in society. Between this class and the other classes there was an almost impassable barrier.

213. Negro Slavery. Slavery existed in almost all the colonies. In the North, however, where slaves could not be used to good advantage on the small farms of New England, it was gradually dying out. In the middle colonies, slaves were not numerous. In Pennsylvania the Quakers opposed slavery on moral grounds; in New York and New Jersey it existed to a limited extent, while in Delaware it lasted until the Civil War.

South of the Mason and Dixon's line negroes were particularly useful in the tobacco fields of Virginia, and the malarial rice fields of South Carolina. They formed about thirty per cent of the population in Maryland, forty per cent in Virginia, and sixty per cent in South Carolina. After having been legally established, slavery also increased rapidly in Georgia. In North Carolina there were fewer slaves than in any of the other southern colonies, as the industries of this province were not well suited to slave labor. The settlers of the western country were as highly prejudiced against slavery as were those of the North.

The treatment of the slaves depended largely upon the character of those who owned them. In general, however, their lot was that of hopeless, abject, and crushing servitude. Outside of Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Georgia, little attempt was made at educating or converting the negro, since it was generally feared that these efforts would serve to turn him against his oppressor.

In the northern and middle colonies slaves dwelt under the same roofs with their masters, and were employed in agriculture and domestic services. Public opinion protected them against cruelty. Though New England did not favor slavery, much of the colonial slave trade was carried on by ships from Massachusetts and Rhode Island. These took rum to Africa, in exchange for which they brought slaves to the southern colonies and the West Indies.

In the South, especially in Maryland and Virginia, the slaves dwelt apart in clusters of wooden cabins. They were, as a rule, well treated. Families imbued with a Christian spirit took them into the family circle, where they became members of the household. This was notably the case in the old Catholic families of Maryland.

Farther south, particularly in South Carolina, a severer form of slavery existed. Here the rich planters, in order to escape the malarial climate of the rice swamps, sought the sea-breezes of Charleston during the greater part of the year, while the plantations were worked by multitudes of negroes under the lash of hired overseers. As the conditions under which rice was grown proved injurious to the health of the negroes, bad masters found it profitable to work the slaves to the uttermost while their strength held out, for the ever-thinning ranks could be speedily recruited by new supplies of savages, brought thither in northern and English vessels, directly from the jungles of Africa. Naturally the slaves newly procured from the wilds of Africa were less obedient than those born and bred in America, as were nearly all the slaves in Maryland and Vir-

ginia. Owing to the severity of the labor and the wildness of the blacks, attempts to escape and insubordination were common. Hence the laws in South Carolina were more odious and severe than those in the other colonies. Rewards were offered for the arrest or the killing of a fugitive slave. Fifty pounds was awarded for the bringing back of a runaway alive, while from one to ten pounds was paid for a negro scalp.

214. Industrial Life. In New England the people engaged largely in whaling and fishing, shipbuilding, and trading. They also distilled rum from West India molasses. In the

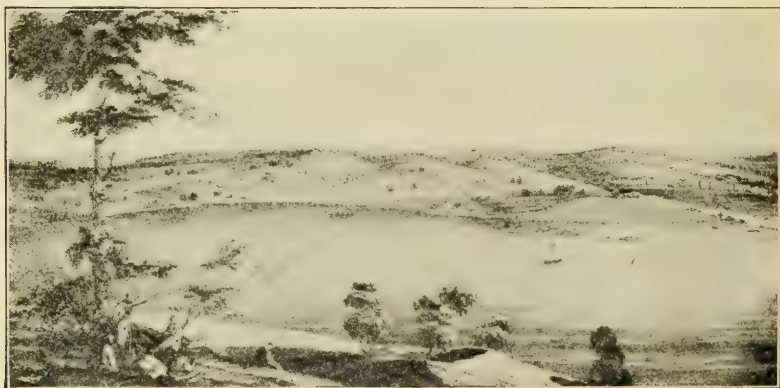


BOSTON IN 1743

middle colonies, agriculture, milling and commerce, lumbering, and trading in furs, were the chief occupations. Iron and paper were also manufactured. In the southern colonies, agriculture was the chief industry, especially the growing of tobacco, rice, and indigo. Tar and turpentine were manufactured and lumbering was actively engaged in. The scattered conditions of the thirteen original colonies along the Atlantic gave rise to a large coasting trade and encouraged the building of vessels in all the colonies, but especially in New England. Here the industry was so extensive, and so many ships were built, that the shipbuilders of Great Britain

complained that the Americans were ruining their business. This seafaring life naturally developed a hardy and expert body of sailors, and eventually furnished the nation with naval heroes, foremost among whom may be mentioned John Barry and Paul Jones of Revolutionary fame.

215. The Growth of Towns. We have seen that in the South the planters lived great distances apart along the rivers. Each planter had his own wharf, and goods could be bought and exchanged at his very door. This condition retarded the growth of towns in the South. Baltimore was the only city



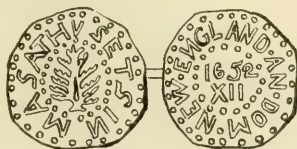
BALTIMORE IN 1752

of importance in the tobacco country, and Charleston in the rice province. On the other hand, the political and industrial conditions of New England and the middle colonies occasioned the growth of numerous towns. Philadelphia was the largest, New York second, and Boston third.

216. Commerce. The colonists traded with Spain, France, the Netherlands, and Portugal, in spite of the Navigation Acts. They also traded extensively with the West Indies. The principal articles of export were: from the New England colonies—rum, salt fish, flour, and iron; from the middle col-

onies—fir, lumber, iron, and paper; from the southern colonies—tobacco, rice, indigo, tar, turpentine, lumber, and staves. The principal articles of import were: from England—hardware, glass; crockery, clothing, furniture, and household utensils; from the West Indies—sugar, molasses, and cotton.

217. Weights—Measures—Money. The colonies for a long time had the same weights, measures, and money as were current in England. The earliest coin made in America was the Pine Tree Shilling, which was issued at Boston (1652). Money, however, for the reason that the imports from England were worth more than the exports to England, was very scarce and domestic trade was mostly by barter. As a result the colonists were obliged to pay out more cash to England than was really put in circulation by England in her colonies.



PINE TREE SHILLING

218. Travel—Communication. Travel in colonial days overland was by foot, horseback, or stage-coach. Twice a week, covered lumber wagons traversed the distance between New York and Philadelphia. Later a stage-coach called the "Flying Machine," made the trip in two days, and the journey from Boston to New York in four days. Passengers were frequently called upon to alight and help pry the coach-wheels out of the mire. The roads were generally poor, and as only a few of the rivers had bridges, people preferred to journey by water if possible. The rivers, lakes, and bays were traversed by means of flat ferries and row-boats, while along the coast traveling was done in coasting sloops. The journey from New York to Philadelphia took three days in good weather. To cross the Atlantic required from a month to seven

weeks and sometimes even three months. Consequently the colonists had poor means of communication. It required more time then to go from Boston to Virginia than it does now to go from Boston to England.

The mail was carried by a post-rider on horseback, who followed the main roads as far as there were any and then found his way to the roadless settlements as best he could by way of Indian trails and bridle paths. There were never more than three mails a week between large towns, while remote settlements were fortunate if they received mail once a month. In time a post-office system was established, and Benjamin Frank-



A POST-RIDER

lin, organizer (1754) of the system, made a five months' tour of the country in his chaise, perfecting and maturing the plan. It took him nearly six months to make the trip which could now be made in less than a week. Not infrequently postage amounted to twenty-five cents per letter. As a result people wrote rarely to each other. They were, therefore, eager to hospitably entertain any chance traveler, in order to hear from him the latest news and gossip.

219. Colonial Forms of Government. The colonies, with respect to their government, were divided into three classes,—charter, proprietary, and royal. At the time of the Revolution there were three charter colonies, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; three proprietary, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Delaware; and seven royal, Virginia, the Carolinas, New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, and Georgia.

Only two of the colonies, Rhode Island and Connecticut, retained their original form of government throughout the colonial period. The chief differences in these three groups lay in their method of choosing the governor. This officer was elected by the people in the charter colonies (except Massachusetts after 1684), appointed by the proprietor in the proprietary colonies, and by the king in the royal colonies.

The government in each colony was composed of three departments vested in:—the governor, the council, and the assembly. The governor represented either the king or the proprietor (except in Rhode Island and Connecticut), and had a difficult position, as his duty toward the people frequently conflicted with that toward the king. His powers were extensive. He had the right of veto over the acts of the legislature, he was in command of the militia, and he had the right to appoint the officials. He could not, however, tax the people. The council was composed of several, usually twelve, distinguished residents of the colonies, who received their appointment from the same power that appointed the governor. Its threefold duties made it a board of advisers of the governor; the upper division of the legislature, or lawmaking body, and frequently the highest court of the colonies. The assembly, whose members were elected by the people in all the colonies, was the lower and larger branch of the legislature; it had much to do in making the laws, which, however, could be vetoed by the governor. If sanctioned by him, they could be cancelled by the king or the proprietor. The assembly also had the sole power of taxing the people, and it often

forced the governor to yield to its demands by withholding his salary. The justice of the peace, usually appointed by the governor, presided at petty and civil trials only. The county courts tried civil cases, involving small sums, and minor criminal cases. The highest court was composed of the governor and the council. Appeals, however, could be made to the Privy Council of England.

In the northern colonies the town, or township, was the unit of local government. Once a year at least the voters of the town would meet, choose their own officers for the next year, and decide all questions which came up about the affairs of the town, such as schools, roads, and taxes. They also chose persons to represent the town in the Colonial Legislature, which met at the chief town, where the interests of the whole colony were discussed. In the South the county, subdivided into parishes, was the unit of local government. The business was done by the county court, composed of the county officers. The chief county officer was the sheriff appointed by the governor. In South Carolina there were neither counties nor townships, but only parishes. In Maryland the township was originally known as "The Hundred."

220. Religion in the Colonies. The colonies were, as a rule, settled by religious-minded men, and the desire for religious liberty entered more or less into the motives of many of the colony builders, notably those who founded Massachusetts, Maryland, Rhode Island, and Pennsylvania. Although the religious element was less pronounced in Virginia than in New England, it was present. In fact, it was recognized in every colony throughout the colonial period. Calvinism was the most widely spread religious doctrine. It prevailed in New England as Congregationalism; in New York it took the form of the Dutch Reformed Church; among Scotch-Irish and the French Huguenots settling in Virginia and the Carolinas it was known as Presbyterianism. The Church of England, though numerically in the minority, was supported by general

taxes in Virginia, the Carolinas, and Maryland, and its influence was marked in New York. The Swedish Lutherans and German Baptists were important factors in the population of Pennsylvania, in which colony, owing to its benign laws, there was the greatest variety of races and religions.

Catholics were numerous in Maryland and well represented among the Germans in Pennsylvania, but elsewhere they constituted only an insignificant handful. The Catholic Church in the United States at the time of the Revolution comprised scarcely twenty-five thousand souls. There were about twenty-five priests scattered here and there, and no bishops. No Catholic college or school, no convent, hospital, or asylum existed. In spite of the difficulties encountered by the colonial Catholics, the Faith was preserved. By the permission of Queen Anne, the Catholics of Maryland celebrated Holy Mass in private houses, and the Jesuits, ever loyal to the colony which they helped to found, ministered to the widely spread flocks of Maryland as well as to the few Catholics in Virginia. The regular congregations of Catholics existing in tolerant Pennsylvania and parts of New Jersey were also in charge of the Jesuits (Fathers Schneider and Farmer). A small congregation of Catholics in New York was attended by the Reverend John McKenna, the first resident priest in the province since the time of Dongan.

221. Religious Intolerance. The colonial white population was Christian, though distributed among a great variety of conflicting churches. More than one sect, strong in the power of the secular arm, bore heavily upon those of another belief; consequently the colonies were the seats of fierce religious fanaticism (notably in New England, especially Massachusetts). The colony most free from religious strifes and its resultant woes, was Pennsylvania, where many religious systems flourished side by side. The colonial times were dark and intolerant for Catholics. They were proscribed, loaded with heavy taxes, and deprived of civil rights. But the close of the

colonial period marked the dawn of a higher civilization based on religious as well as civil and political liberty, on popular education, and equality for all men;—an era in which Roman Catholics and Protestants fought side by side in war. The one object, national independence, crowding in the background all other interests, brought together in council chamber and camp the cream of the population. The austere Puritan of New England and the Virginian Anglican learned to make due allowance each for the other's personal views. From this same motive colonists were content to forget their prejudices against Roman Catholics and to welcome with open arms all "Papists" who would enroll under their standard.

222. Education. It has been seen, while studying the several colonies, that in New England the people (Puritans) valued education next to religion and almost as a part of it. Hence they early established free schools and colleges. In the middle colonies the Dutch provided educational facilities simultaneously with the establishment of their patroonships; and provision for education constituted a part of Penn's plan for governing his colony. The South was slow in advancing the cause of education, owing to unfavorable government and to the scattered condition of the population. The richer class, however, employed private tutors to teach their children, or in some cases sent them to England to be educated. The poorer classes had scarcely any educational opportunities.

In the New England and in the middle colonies the district schools were kept for two months in winter by a man, and for two months in summer by a woman. The boys usually attended in winter and the girls in summer. Pupils were given a limited instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic, in return for which the teacher received a small amount of money and "boarded round."

223. Colonial Literature. American literature was yet in its infancy. The literary men who were to give reputation to American letters within the next half century were not yet

born. The first book written in the colonies was John Smith's *True Relation of Virginia* (1608). It is a book of travel in which are described the occurrences and incidents of note, relative to the early history of Virginia. Cotton Mather's *Magnalia*, a religious history of New England, is one of the first important books written by an American author. The Mather family were great scholars and remarkable preachers. Richard Mather, his famous son, Increase Mather, and his still more famous grandson, Cotton Mather, formed a growing power in New England life and thought for more than one hundred years. They produced, in all, between five and six hundred works. Father Andrew White, S. J., whose name is familiar in the annals of Maryland and shines so brightly in the pages of American history as a writer, is especially noted for his *History of Maryland*, and a Grammar and Dictionary of the English language. Jonathan Edwards was another distinguished New England author. His most notable work is an essay entitled *Inquiry into the Freedom of the Will*. In this essay, the writer holds that the human will is not free. This principle, of course, is false and was borrowed from Calvinism, in which the author believed. The colonial writer of greatest distinction is preëminently Benjamin Franklin. His best production during the colonial period was a collection of wise sayings, which he published every year under the title of *Poor Richard's Almanac*, the successive numbers of which were afterwards abridged and printed in one volume, under the title of *On the Way to Wealth*. Besides this are many other writings, most important of which are his *Autobiography*, various state papers, and essays on electricity. Franklin's Almanac received its name from the fact that in it the author represents a curious old fellow, whom he calls Poor Richard, as uttering the sayings. People still read with pleasure such sayings as:

“He that hath a trade hath an estate.”

“A little negle t will breathe great mischief.”

“Diligence is the mother of good luck.”

“One today is worth two tomorrows.”

“Constant dropping wears away stones.”

“He that riseth late must trot all day.”

“Early to bed and early to rise,
Makes men healthy, wealthy, and wise.”

The first among the historical writers is William Bradford (1590-1657). His most important work is his *History of Plymouth*, in which he gives a clear account of the early history of that colony up to 1649. Next to Bradford may be placed John Winthrop (1588-1649), the governor and historian of Massachusetts Bay Colony. He is especially noted for his *History of New England*, really a journal of every day happenings. “The Boston Weekly News Letter,” established in 1704, was the first permanent newspaper in the colonies. “The Pennsylvania Packet,” founded in 1784, was the first daily newspaper. Newspapers were small and poorly printed. The chief contents were bits of poetry, advertisements for runaway slaves and servants, notices of the arrivals of cargoes, a summary of the news from London and Paris, and lengthy articles on politics and morals.

224. Colonial Art. The American artists of this period were the two historical painters, John Copley (1737-1815) and Benjamin West (1738-1820), and the great portrait painter Gilbert Stuart (1755-1828). Owing to the poor support given to artists in America at the time, they lived abroad, and each gained a reputation in England. Copley's most noted portraits are of the English royal family; West's most celebrated painting is the death of General Wolfe, and Stuart's, a portrait of Washington.

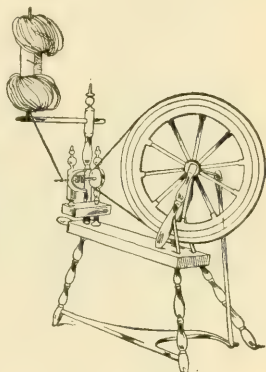
225. Medicine and Law—Charitable Institutions. The practice of medicine was yet in a crude state. The village doctor was an important personage. His education usually consisted of a short apprenticeship with some noted physician. The legal profession rose to preëminence during the colonial period,

especially on the eve of the Revolutionary era. While studying the next epoch, it will be noted how many of the men, prominent in bringing about the separation from England, were lawyers (James Otis, James Madison, Thomas Jefferson, Patrick Henry).

In the colonies, as elsewhere in the world, the sick and other dependent people received little attention. There were only a few hospitals. Insane persons were imprisoned in underground cells and brutally treated. Prisoners (except in Pennsylvania) were crowded together in loathsome dungeons, no matter what might be the degree of crime charged against them.

226. The Household. The New Englanders and the middle colonists (with the exception of the New York settlers) lived in a primitive manner in log cabins. Eventually solidly built houses of heavy oak timber took the place of these dwellings. There were few stoves, and large open fireplaces, over or before which the cooking was done, were used. The kitchen, seldom more than seven feet high, was the chief apartment. Huge bunches of seed corn, and long strings of apples and onions were suspended from the ceiling. The walls of the rooms of the better buildings were plastered and whitewashed. The furniture usually included a tall wooden clock and a dresser on which were the pewter dishes brought from England. Nearly every home had a spinning wheel, and a loom for weaving. The food was simple, consisting in most instances of mush and molasses, corn cakes, and potatoes.

The middle class of the South dwelt in houses resembling those constructed in the North, but the rich lived in stately mansions having vine-clad verandas and balconies, within



SPINNING WHEEL

which the music of the harpsichord was oftener heard than the hum of the spinning-wheel. The kitchen and the laundry stood apart from the mansion. The negroes dwelt in clusters of wooden cabins located at convenient distances from the residence. Black slaves performed all the domestic labors.

227. Amusements. The New Englanders had few enjoyments. During the long winter evenings the mothers and daughters would sit by the fireside with their spinning, knitting, and quilting, while the father read his Bible or smoked

his pipe. Sometimes cider-drinking, nut-cracking, and story telling helped to while away the evening hours. The young people, however, were not without their amusements, such as house raising, dancing, and corn-husking parties, and social gatherings for spinning, quilting, and apple-paring. The chief holiday was Thanksgiving. Christmas was not observed because of the Puritan aversion for the Church of England. In the middle colonies, people were more social and fonder of merry-making than in New England. In the country



PURITAN COSTUMES

spinning-bees, corn-husking, house raising, and dancing parties were favorite amusements. In towns, horse-racing, cock-fighting, balls, and picnics, were greatly enjoyed. The chief holidays were Christmas, New Year's, St. Valentine's Day, Easter, and May Day. In the South, the planters, with their choice dogs, blooded horses, and coaches-and-six, lived in wasteful extravagance. The southerner was fond of such sports as fox-

hunting and horse-racing. He was generous and hospitable, and his house was always open to the respectable traveler. Christmas was the great holiday of the year. On this day everything was gay and bright in the planter's house.

228. Colonial Differences. The thirteen original colonies, though thirteen distinct governments, had very much in common. They were notably English colonies, obeyed English laws, and called the English sovereign their king. They traded with one another, kept in touch one with the other by means of letters and newspapers, and moved from one colony to another. Still we have seen, while studying the thirteen original colonies in divisions of three groups, that the dwellers of the various parts of the country differed greatly from one another in respect to government, enterprise, religion, and spirit. The difference in the main, however, was that between the Cavaliers and the Puritans. These planted, as it were, two distinct civilizations, the one on the James River, containing the germs of Monarchism, and the other on Plymouth Rock containing the germs of Republicanism. The former colonized and settled the southern states, the latter the northern and northwestern. In time these two civilizations, so radically different, met and clashed on the question of slavery and state-rights in the great Civil War.

CHRONOLOGICAL REVIEW

1607-1649

James I and Charles I reign in England.

Richelieu, minister of Louis XIII, rules in France.

Religious wars rage in Germany and France.

James I (1603-1625).

- 1607. Virginia (1) is settled by the London Company at Jamestown.
- 1608. Quebec is founded by the French.
- 1609. Champlain discovers Lake Champlain.
Henry Hudson discovers the Hudson River.
- 1610. Hudson discovers Hudson Bay and perishes in its waters.
Starving time in Virginia.
- 1613. Argall destroys the Mount Desert Island and Acadian settlements.
- 1614. New York (2) is settled at New Amsterdam by the Dutch.
- 1619. Negro slavery is introduced into Virginia.
The first representative assembly in America, the House of Burgesses, is organized.
- 1620. Massachusetts (3) is settled at Plymouth by the Pilgrims.
- 1621. Thanksgiving Day originates.
- 1622. Indian massacre occurs in Virginia.
- 1623. New Hampshire (4) is settled at Dover and Portsmouth by the English.

Charles I (1625-1649).

- 1628. Salem. second Massachusetts settlement, is founded.
- 1629-1630. The Massachusetts Bay Company in America.
Boston and other Massachusetts Bay colonies are founded.
- 1633. Connecticut (5) is founded at Windsor by Massachusetts colonists.

1634. Maryland (6) is settled at St. Mary's by English Roman Catholics.
- 1634-1636. Connecticut settlements are founded at Wethersfield, Hartford, and Saybrook.
1636. Rhode Island (7) is founded at Providence by Roger Williams.
- Harvard College is founded.
1637. Pequot war in Connecticut.
1638. Delaware (8) is founded at Wilmington by the Swedes.
1639. First printing press of the English colonies is set up in Cambridge, Mass.
1643. Four New England colonies form a league known as the New England Confederacy.
1649. Execution of Charles I.
- 1649-1660. Puritan rule of the Commonwealth in England.
- Louis XIV reigns in France.

1660-1689

Charles II (1660-1685).

1662. Connecticut secures a charter.
1663. Rhode Island secures a charter.
1664. New Amsterdam conquered by English.
1664. New Jersey is granted to Berkeley and Carteret.
- 1675-1676. King Philip's War.
1676. Bacon's Rebellion occurs in Virginia.
1681. William Penn secures grant of Pennsylvania.
1682. Philadelphia is founded.
1684. Massachusetts loses its charter.

James II (1685-1689).

1686. Andros is made governor of New England.

1689-1714

War between England and France, and as a consequence war between the French and English colonies in America, known as King William's and Queen Anne's Wars.

William III and Máry (1689-1702).

1689. Leisler's Rebellion occurs in New York.

1689-1697. King William's War.

1692. Salem Witchcraft delusion occurs in New England.

1693. William and Mary College opens at Jamestown, Va.

1694. St. John's College is founded at Annapolis, Md.

Queen Anne (1702-1714).

1701. Yale College is founded at New Haven, Conn.

1702-1713. Queen Anne's War.

1704. First weekly newspaper begins at Boston, Mass.

1714-1763

George I, George II, and George III reign in England; Louis XV in France.

George I (1714-1727).

1724. Father Rasle is killed.

George II (1727-1760).

1732. George Washington is born in Virginia, February 22.

1733. Georgia (13) is settled at Savannah, by English debtors under James Oglethorpe.

1741. Supposed Negro Plot in New York.

1744-1748. King George's War.

Jonathan Edwards preaches and writes in New England.

Benjamin Franklin begins to write and make experiments with electricity.

1746. Princeton College opens at Newark, N. J.

1754-1763. French and Indian War.

1759. Quebec is taken by the English.

The great Generals, Wolfe and Montcalm, die.

George III (1760-1820).

1763. The treaty of peace at Paris ends the French and Indian War.

1763-1767. Boundary line between Maryland and Virginia is settled by two surveyors, Mason and Dixon.



PERIOD OF THE REVOLUTION AND THE CONFEDERATION

CHAPTER XII

PRELIMINARIES OF THE WAR

229. Extent of the Period. The period of the Revolution and the Confederation extends from the breaking out of the Revolutionary war (1775) to the beginning of the government under the Constitution (1789). The important events of this period are the resistance of the colonists to taxation, the various events of the Revolution, final independence, and the formation and adoption of a national Constitution.

230. The Mother Country and Her Colonies. The treaty of Paris (1763) marked not only the end of the French claims and possessions in America, but also the beginning of the end of England's sway over her American colonies. The French, dwelling to the north and west, held their territory, as it were, by two extremes, the mouths of its two great rivers, while the colonies needed the protection of the mother country; the mother country, on the other hand, refrained from too great an irritation of her colonies, lest they should make common cause with the French against her. When the French prime minister signed the cession of nearly half of North America to

the English he said: "We have caught them at last." Another French nobleman predicted: "England will soon repent of having removed the only check which kept her colonies in awe. They stand no longer in need of her protection; she will call upon them to contribute toward supporting the burdens they have helped to bring upon her, and they will answer by striking off all dependence."

In our study of the colonies, we have seen that constant and growing friction existed between the royal governors representing the king, and the colonial legislatures representing the people. This fact naturally embittered the colonists against the British government. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the object of Europeans in planting a colony was to create a dependent community for the purpose of trading with it. Great Britain regarded her colonies chiefly as market places for her goods. Accordingly, the laws she made in regulating colonial trade were based on the principle that the colonies existed for the benefit of the mother country.

231. Laws Restricting Trade and Manufacture. The Navigation Acts restricted colonial commerce for the benefit of English merchants. Under these laws:

- (a) the colonies could trade only with the mother country and her dependencies;
- (b) all imports had to pass through English ports;
- (c) certain exports—tobacco, sugar, furs, copper, indigo, etc.—had to be sold in British markets;
- (d) duties were imposed on articles shipped to England as well as on all trade between the colonies.

To protect the English West India sugar-producing islands, the Sugar Act imposed a duty on sugar and molasses imported into the colonies from the French islands in the West Indies. The Sugar Act (1733) was one of the harshest laws suppressing colonial trade. The prosperity of New England depended, for the most part, on its West India trade, in which flour, lumber, and fish were exchanged for molasses and sugar. Molasses and

sugar were manufactured into rum, and this again was taken to Africa and exchanged for slaves to be sold to the southern colonists.

Some of the northern colonies took to manufacturing, which industry again led Parliament to restrict colonial manufacturing. New York made a great many fur hats. Parliament, accordingly, forbade entirely the exportation of hats.

232. England and Her Colonies Had Grown Apart. All these laws had been passed before the French and Indian War. They were, however, not very strictly enforced, and much smuggling was indulged in. Nine-tenths of all the tea and other articles of consumption were smuggled. Colonial trade continued to flourish, and large fortunes were made. Hence, complaints were not as loud as they might have been, and no serious opposition arose. As during the French and Indian War a common cause united the colonies with England against a common enemy, so past strifes were somewhat forgotten, and a new spirit of loyalty and



GEORGE III

devotion to the mother country sprang up. Still, the two peoples had unconsciously grown apart. The American colonists had learned to govern themselves without the aid of England. They no longer felt the need of protection against the French. The late conflict had given them confidence in themselves and had schooled them in the art of war. Therefore the bond between Great Britain and her colonies was a weak one.

233. Policy of George III—Unwise Measures. King George III came to the throne of England toward the close of the French and Indian War (1760). He foolishly pushed aside the great statesmen he found in office, and surrounded himself by inferior men, who came to be known as the "King's friends." These men, by bribes, threats, and favors, could be influenced to do the king's bidding. He at once determined to enforce the navigation laws and put an end to smuggling. He also expected the colonies to help in the payment of the heavy debt created by the French and Indian War.

234. Writs of Assistance. To put an end to smuggling and to enforce the old laws, the new English government now issued "Writs of Assistance." These were legal papers giving the king's officers the right to enter any house or shop at any time to search for smuggled goods. When the officers enforced this right in Boston, appeal was made by the colonists to the court. The court's decision was against them, but the trial became famous on account of the eloquent speeches of James Otis, a young lawyer. From one of his memorable speeches may be quoted: "A man's house is his castle; and whilst he is quiet he is as well guarded as a prince in his castle." "Every one with this writ may be a tyrant." John Adams, who had heard the young lawyer's famous speech, said that Otis was like a flame of fire, and that his oration breathed into the nation the breath of life, and that then and there independence was born.

The English government, failing to prevent smuggling by the Writs of Assistance, stationed ships of war along the American coast. Vessels and cargoes were seized and the American West India trade was greatly injured. Many smugglers were caught and tried by admiralty courts without jury. This, the colonies claimed, was a violation of the oldest English rights.

235. The Parsons' Cause. By the law of Virginia, prior to 1755, the salaries of the clergy were paid in tobacco, but by an

act of the House of Burgesses, passed in that year, the salaries might be paid in paper money. When the value of tobacco increased the clergy were displeased with the law and appealed to the king to veto it, which he did. During the progress of a suit brought by a clergyman for back pay Patrick Henry declared that the king, by annulling laws made for the good of the people, had degenerated into a tyrant, and forfeited all right to the obedience of his subjects. Nevertheless, under the ruling of the court, damages were awarded to the parson. In this case and that of the Writs of Assistance, Patrick Henry and James Otis did much toward weakening the sentiment of loyalty in the colonies.

236. Taxation and Representation. "No taxation without representation" was the principle which the English people had adopted after a succession of revolutionary events during the long course of centuries. In the reign of George III, however, representation was still very imperfect. For more than two hundred years there had been no redistribution of seats in the House of Commons. Small towns of not more than half a dozen voters sometimes sent two members to Parliament, simply because they had always sent them; while many of the populous manufacturing cities that had grown up in recent years, such as Manchester, Birmingham, Sheffield, and Leeds, had no representation at all. Consequently the theory came to be held that every member of Parliament, no matter by whom elected, represented all the people of the kingdom. So George III and his "friends" could not see why Boston, New York, and Philadelphia should object to taxation, when, for instance, such cities as Manchester and Birmingham did not. Therefore the king stubbornly insisted that if the colonies opposed taxation they must simply be forced into obedience, for he justly feared that if the Americans should succeed in securing "no taxation without representation" England might also demand and secure the same. This would mean the certain failure of the king's scheme of personal government.

237. Political Parties. By reason of the poor system of representation, Parliament did not truly represent the people of England, but rather a group of powerful personages known as the Old Whigs, who could buy up enough seats to control the majority of votes. This political party ruled England during the reign of the first two Georges. It was in favor of taking power from the crown and vesting it in the people represented by Parliament. In America the Whigs favored the cause of liberty and were zealous in supporting the colonies against the injustice of the British Parliament. The Tories, or Royalists, in opposition to the Whigs, supported the crown. Their policy was to strengthen the power of the king and reduce that of Parliament. In America, the Tories were the supporters of the British government. They were most numerous in the South, in New York, and in New Jersey. They generally belonged to what was called the "higher class," including wealthy families and persons holding office under the British government.

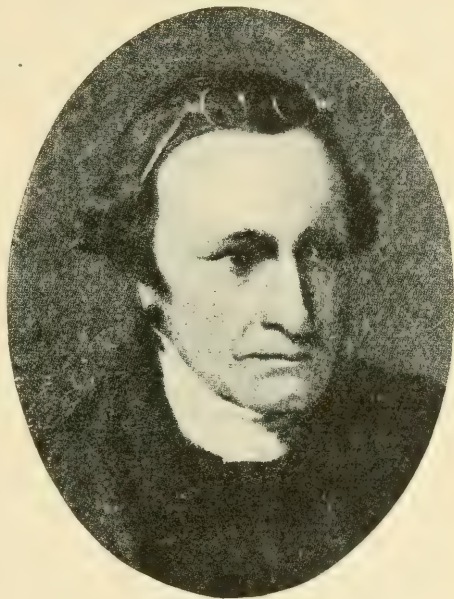
The new Whigs, led by William Pitt, the great commoner, were opposed to both the Old Whigs and the Tories. Their aim was to make Parliament really represent the people, and in view of this, they advocated a redistribution of seats in the House of Commons. "No taxation without representation," the watchword of William Pitt in regard to Birmingham and Leeds, was re-echoed in America by Patrick Henry and Samuel Adams in behalf of the colonies.

According to the British constitution taxes could be imposed only by the representatives of the whole nation; the colonists insisting upon their rights as Englishmen, declared that as they were not represented in the English Parliament, they could not be legally taxed by it. They were, however, not unwilling to contribute to the mother country in case the latter would permit them to be taxed by their own assemblies.

Even in England some of the greatest and wisest men, led by William Pitt, Edmund Burke, and Colonel Barre, supported

the claims of the colonies. Pitt claimed that it was not right to tax the colonies, while Burke said it was not wise. The latter thought it would be as difficult a task for the king to tax the colonies against their will as it was for the farmer who tried to shear a wolf instead of a sheep.

238. The Stamp Act. Adhering to her right to tax the colonies, England now passed the Stamp Act (1765) in order to raise money for the support of a standing army in the colonies. The Stamp Act required that all legal documents (notes, bonds, deeds, mortgages, licenses) and newspapers must be printed on paper bearing government stamps, the cost of which varied from one cent to fifty dollars. The king thought that the stamp tax was not only less annoying than any other kind of tax, but that it would also prove very effective in raising money, since it would enforce itself.



PATRICK HENRY

The Stamp Act aroused a storm of angry opposition throughout the colonies. The colonists loudly declared that "taxation without representation is tyranny," and that Parliament could tax them only by the consent of the colonial assemblies. Samuel Adams and James Otis in Massachusetts, and Patrick Henry in Virginia, with overpowering eloquence, stirred up resistance to the Stamp Act throughout the colonies. In the Virginia

legislature, Patrick Henry, in an exciting debate, declared that the British king had acted the part of a tyrant. Then he exclaimed: "Caesar had his Brutus, Charles the First his Cromwell, and George the Third"—"Treason! Treason!" shouted one of the members. Patrick Henry paused a moment, and then calmly added, "may profit by their examples. If this be treason, make the most of it."

"The Sons of Liberty," a patriotic society, was organized to resist the Stamp Act. Benjamin Franklin, the American agent at London, wrote: "The sun of liberty has set; now we must light the lamp of industry and economy." The colonial women, understanding his words, formed themselves into societies called "Daughters of Liberty." These patriotic women agreed to buy no more goods imported from England. They spun yarn from which they wove cloth and knitted stockings for the men to wear. Instead of imported tea they used dried raspberry leaves at their tea parties.

239. The Stamp Act Congress. Uniting in resistance against the Stamp Act, twenty-eight delegates, representing nine of the thirteen colonies, convened in New York City (1765). They sat for three weeks and framed the "Declaration of Rights," a loyal address to their king, and a petition to Parliament. The Declaration of Rights, written by John Dickinson, asserted:

- (a) that the colonists owed the same allegiance to the crown as other Englishmen;
- (b) that they were entitled to all the rights and liberties of natural born subjects;
- (c) that it was an undoubted right of Englishmen to be taxed only by their own representatives;
- (d) that the people in the colonies could not be represented in Parliament;
- (e) that no taxes ever had been or could be constitutionally imposed on them but by their respective legislatures;
- (f) that trial by jury and the right to petition were the privileges of every British subject.

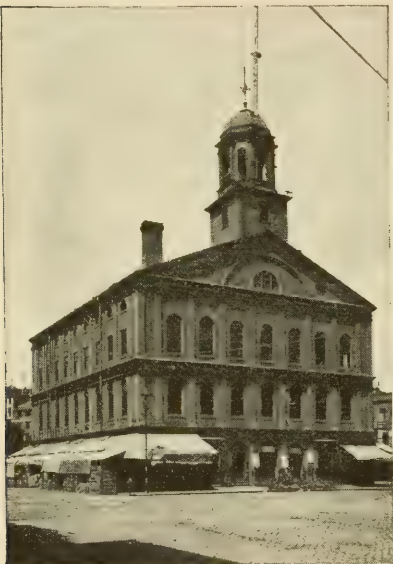
The day on which the Stamp Act was to go into effect was made a day of mourning. Bells were tolled, flags were lowered, and business houses were closed, to indicate that Liberty was dead. The stamp officers were mobbed, the stamps were destroyed, and editors published their newspapers decorated with skull and cross-bones instead of stamps. There was a general agreement that unstamped documents should be accepted. England, seeing her mistake, now speedily repealed the Stamp Act (1766) after a fierce debate in Parliament. At the same time, however, was passed what is known as the Declaratory Act, which stated that Parliament had a right to make whatever law it pleased. Hence, only the difficulty, not the cause, was removed, and nothing was gained on the part of the colonies but a temporary relief from the tax.

While the repeal of the Stamp Act was under consideration in the English Parliament, Benjamin Franklin, who was highly esteemed for his good sense, was in London, and, when consulted, said that the Americans would never submit to the Stamp Act. When asked whether he thought the people would pay for the damage done by the destruction of the stamped paper, if Parliament should repeal the Stamp Act, he made answer with the following story: A Frenchman, rushing into the street with a red-hot poker in his hand, met an Englishman to whom he said, "Will you let me run this poker a foot into you?" "What!" said the Englishman. "Well, six inches, then? Never!" "Then will you pay me for the trouble and expense of heating the poker?" The Englishman walked away.

240. The Townshend Acts. The Stamp Act was followed by the Townshend Acts (1767), so named from their author. They imposed taxes on glass, lead, paper, painters' colors, and tea. The money thus collected was to be used to pay the salaries of the crown officers in the colonies and to support a standing army in America. These acts were as hateful to the people as the Stamp Act had been, and for the same reasons—that the colonies would not be taxed except by the vote of their assem-

ies, and that they would not pay taxes whose real purpose was to deprive them of their liberties. Consequently the colonists resisted promptly and decisively, and pledged themselves to import no English goods. They smuggled tea from Holland

and other supplies from France and Spain. A circular letter, penned by Samuel Adams and passed by the Massachusetts assembly, was sent to other colonies. It reasserted the rights of the colonists and appealed for united action in opposing the taxes. Massachusetts was ordered by the royal governor to recall the letter. She refused to do so, whereupon her legislature was dissolved. Everywhere a similar spirit of opposition prevailed. Some of the colonies replied favorably to the circular letter and their assemblies also were dissolved. In Mas-



FANEUIL HALL TODAY

sachusetts, when the assembly was dismissed, its work was continued by the Boston town meeting in Faneuil Hall, which came to be called the "Cradle of Liberty." When Faneuil Hall was too small, the meeting used to adjourn to the Old South Church. Public feeling was still more intensified and united by what was known as the "Farmer's Letters," a remarkable series of papers written by John Dickinson, a member of the Pennsylvania Assembly, in defense of the rights of the people.

241. The Mutiny Act—Boston Massacre. Two British regiments were ordered to Boston to assist in enforcing the new

tax laws and to hold themselves in readiness to carry the king's bidding into effect (1768). To be taxed and menaced by royal troops was bad enough for the Americans, but the Mutiny Act, ordering that the colonies should provide the troops with food and shelter—should support armed oppressors—was unendurable. The presence of the troops was very offensive to the people, and unseemly fights became an almost daily occurrence. One evening, in Boston, a false alarm of fire brought a crowd of men and boys together. The city guard was insulted and a fight ensued in which about a dozen men were killed or wounded (1770). The Boston Massacre greatly widened the breach between England and her colonies. A mass meeting was held in the Old South Church.



OLD SOUTH CHURCH

Samuel Adams, the Father of the Revolution, was spokesman. As a result of the meeting the governor was ordered to withdraw the soldiers, and, thinking it imprudent to refuse, he removed them to an island in Boston harbor.

In the year following the Boston riot, the colonial force was defeated in a pitched battle fought in North Carolina, in resistance to excessive taxes and unlawful imprisonment. In 1772, a number of Rhode Island people captured and burned a British revenue vessel, the *Gaspee*, which had been active in suppressing smuggling along the Rhode Island coast.

242. The Tea Tax. Parliament, alarmed by the opposition of the colonists, now repealed all the Townshend tax measures except the one on tea (1770). This tax Parliament imposed

merely to show the colonies that it had a right to tax them at pleasure. Notwithstanding that tea in America was cheaper than in England, the colonists refused to pay the tax, on the ground that it was not cheap tea they wanted, but untaxed tea. Large cargoes of tea were sent to various American ports. The people of New York and Philadelphia refused, however, to allow the cargoes to be unshipped; in Charleston, tea was stored away; in Boston, a number of men disguised as Indians boarded the tea-ships, ripped open every chest, and emptied the contents into the harbor in the presence of a large party of people (1773). This was known as the Boston Tea Party, at which over three hundred chests of tea, valued at about ninety thousand dollars, were destroyed.

243. The Five Intolerable Acts. To punish the defiant resistance to the tea tax Parliament now passed (1774) "The Five Intolerable Acts,"—The Boston Port Bill, The Massachusetts Bill, The Transportation Bill, The Quartering Act, and The Quebec Act.

The Boston Port Bill closed the port of Boston to all trade until the town should pay for the tea that had been destroyed. Sympathy and aid were freely given to the people of Boston by the other colonial cities. Salem and Marblehead generously offered their wharves to Boston merchants, and provisions were sent from every direction, even from the far away Carolinas.

The Massachusetts Bill annulled the charter of Massachusetts and vested all power in the military governor, General Gage. This bill alarmed every colony. What were charters and governments worth if Parliament could alter them at pleasure? General Gage was not recognized in any way by the people, for, like Andros, he represented the tyranny of an arbitrary king.

The Transportation Bill provided that any officer or soldier who committed murder in Massachusetts might be sent to England or to some other colony for trial. The object of this

bill was to encourage British officers and soldiers to enforce the laws more strictly.

The Quartering Act legalized the lodging of troops upon the people. This established a means of enforcing the laws. The colonies were required to furnish the soldiers with shelter, fuel, drink, bedding, soap, and candles.

The Quebec Act made all the country north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi a part of Canada, admitted the Canadian Catholics to the legislative council, and granted them freedom of worship. Parliament passed the Quebec Act to prevent the Canadians, who were nearly all Catholics, from joining the colonies. Thus the same power which cruelly persecuted Catholics in Ireland was induced by political consideration to protect them in Canada. The Quebec Bill met with great opposition, partly because the colonists thought that the crown had no right to give away the land so recently wrested from the French, but chiefly because, as they claimed, King George, by granting freedom of conscience to the Roman Catholics, became a traitor, broke his coronation oath, was secretly a "Papist," and might ultimately force Popery upon them. Hence the common cry was "No King, no Popery!"

244. The First Continental Congress. The Five Intolerable Acts aroused everywhere the deepest indignation. In Boston, meetings were held almost daily in Faneuil Hall and the Old South Church. Under the leadership of Samuel Adams, each town of Massachusetts appointed a committee by means of which the towns could consult on all public matters by letter. A meeting of all the committees would make a "Provincial Congress." These committees were called Committees of Correspondence, and were eventually organized among the several colonies. Thus, each colony became acquainted with the views of all the others, and the Committees of Correspondence opened the door, as it were, to the First Continental Congress. This congress, the greatest meeting of Americans yet held, met (Sept, 5, 1774) in Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia.

Fifty-five delegates represented all the colonies except Georgia, whose royal governor succeeded in preventing the appointment of delegates. The acts of the Congress may be summed up as follows:

- (a) it passed resolutions of sympathy and encouragement for Massachusetts;
- (b) a petition was directed to the king, asking the removal of grievances, but still claiming loyalty to the mother country;
- (c) addresses were issued to the people of England and Canada;
- (d) a remarkable paper, known as the Declaration of Rights, was published. It stated fully the grievances of the colonies and their principles of government;
- (e) an Association was formed for the non-importation and non-consumption of British goods, and non-exportation of goods to England;
- (f) it fixed the date of meeting of the next Continental Congress (May 10, 1775).

245. Plans for Conciliation - Fail. King George and his "friends," hearing of the Congress, were more determined than ever to make America submit. Pitt petitioned for a removal of the British troops from Boston, and, with Franklin, prepared a plan for reconciling England with her colonies. Edmund Burke, too, spoke eloquently, pleading for the repeal of the oppressive acts, but all in vain. Franklin, who was acting as the American agent in London, now saw that nothing could be done and hastened back to America.

Preparations for war were now begun. Two distinct parties had arisen in America: the Tories, like the Tories in England, adhered to the king and were opposed to war; the Whigs disapproved of the king's policy and favored war. Patrick Henry voiced the sentiment of the Whigs by declaring in a stirring speech, which he delivered in St. John's Church, Richmond, Virginia: "We must fight! We must fight! Give me

liberty or give me death!" Volunteers were raised, one-third of whom were "Minute-men," that is, men ready to march and fight at a minute's notice. Stores of war materials were collected. General Gage's efforts to capture some of these stores at Lexington and Concord led to the first battle of the American Revolution (April 19, 1775).

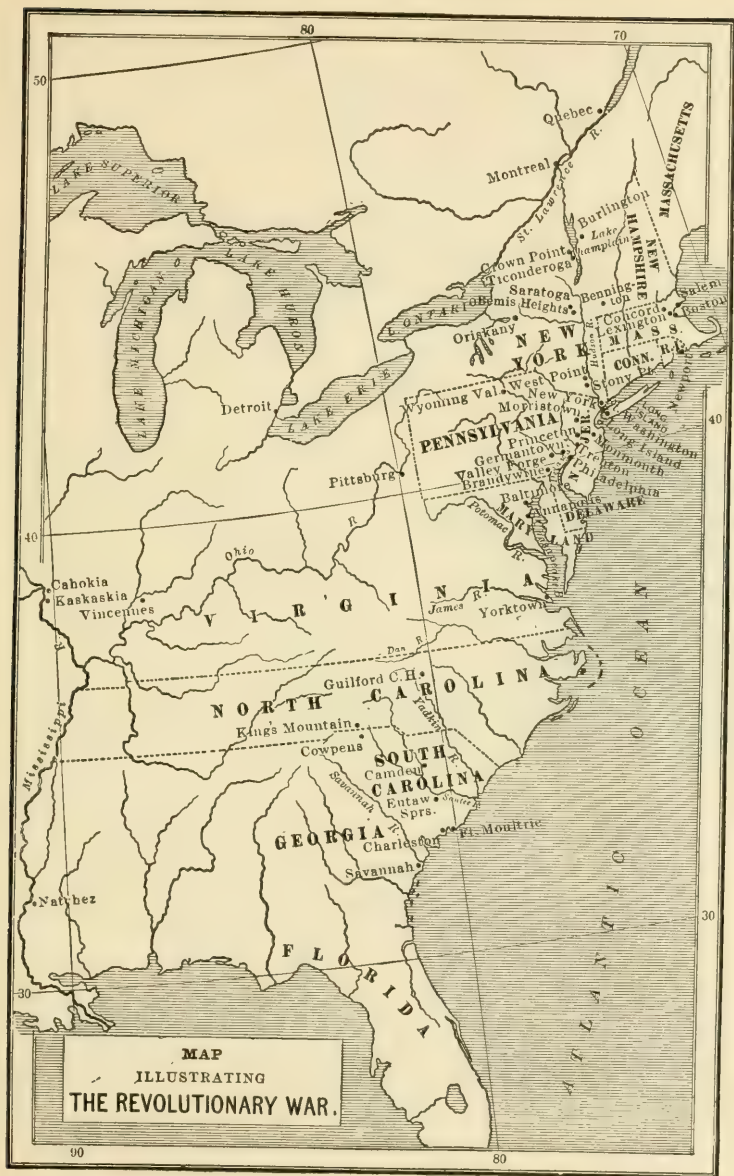
246. Causes of the Revolutionary War. The causes of the Revolution, or War for Independence, may be briefly summed up as follows: the remote cause was England's attitude that the colonies existed only for the benefit of the mother country, which led to the enactment of the Navigation Acts and other laws restricting trade and manufacture. The immediate causes were:

- (a) Writs of Assistance,
- (b) Stamp Act,
- (c) Mutiny Act,
- (d) Townshend Acts,
- (e) Tea Tax,
- (f) Boston Massacre,
- (g) Five Intolerable Acts.

247. Comparative Strength of the Warring Parties. The resistance of the colonies seems almost foolhardy, for in population, wealth, strength, and discipline of navy and army, England far surpassed them. The scene of the war was more favorable to the British than to the Americans. As there were no fortresses, the coast was everywhere open to the landing of military forces. However, the British generals in the early stage of the war were slow, timid, and inefficient; while Putnam, Wayne, Greene, and other American generals were natural soldiers. Of Washington it may be said that he made few serious blunders, was never frightened, and never despaired.

Thus the glory of the war was in the courage, patriotism, self-sacrifice, and devotion with which the colonies fought against a nation many times more powerful in resources and in men.

248. The Two Periods of the War. The Revolutionary War may be divided into two periods: the first, including the three years' events from the battle of Lexington (April 19, 1775), to the battle of Saratoga (October 17, 1777), marked the turning point of the war and was the dawn of a new era of hope and confidence for the Americans. During this period the fighting was done in America between the mother country and her colonies alone. The second part includes the four years' events beginning with the hardships at Valley Forge during the winter of 1778, and closing with the crowning victory of Yorktown, October 19, 1781. France, Spain, and Holland joined in the conflict against England and the war spread to all parts of the world.



CHAPTER XIII

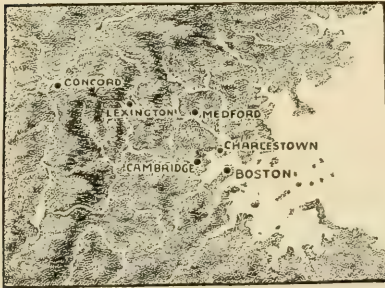
FIRST PERIOD OF THE WAR—1775-1777

FIRST YEAR—1775

249. Battle of Lexington. The first blood of the war was shed at Lexington, a small village eleven miles from Boston, on the highway to Concord. General Gage determined to secure the military stores which the patriots had collected at Concord, and to capture Samuel Adams and John Hancock, who had escaped to Lexington. Gage had received orders from

the king to arrest these two distinguished Massachusetts leaders and send them to England to be tried for so-called treasonable utterances.

It was rumored that the soldiers would be sent to seize the stores on the night preceding April 19. General Joseph Warren hastily despatched Paul Revere from Boston to warn Adams and



BOSTON AND VICINITY

Hancock, and to spread the alarm. Revere crossed by boat to Charlestown, where he waited until a lantern, hung in the belfry of the Old North Church, gave the signal that the British were starting by way of the bay and the Charles River, through Cambridge. Paul Revere now set out on his famous midnight ride, by way of Medford and Lexington, everywhere arousing the people. When he reached the house in Lexington where Hancock and Adams were asleep, a man on guard cried out: "Don't make so much noise!" "Noise!"

shouted Revere, "You'll soon have noise enough. The regulars are coming!" The two fugitives made good their escape, while Revere pressed on, with his startling message, to Concord. The farmers from the country around soon swarmed into Concord by the hundreds.

So through the night rode Paul Revere;
And so through the night went his cry of alarm
To every Middlesex village and farm—
A cry of defiance and not of fear—
A voice in the darkness, a knock at the door,
And a word that shall echo forevermore!
Through all our history to the last,
—*From Longfellow's "Ride of Paul Revere."*

Eight hundred British soldiers, under Major Pitcairn, encountered about fifty minute-men in a skirmish at Lexington. Seven Americans were killed. Pushing on to Concord, a sharp battle was fought at Concord Bridge, where a large number of minute-men from the country around had hurriedly gathered. The British destroyed what was left of the stores and then fell back to Lexington under American fire. Here they were re-enforced, but beating a disorderly retreat to Boston they were followed all the way by the minute-men who kept firing at them from the shelter of trees, houses, and walls. Nearly three hundred of the king's soldiers were left, dead or dying, along the road, while the dead and wounded of the patriots numbered about ninety.

By the rude bridge that arched the flood,
Their flag to April's breeze unfurled,
Here once the embattled farmers stood,
And fired the shot heard round the world.
—*Emerson's "Concord Hymn."*

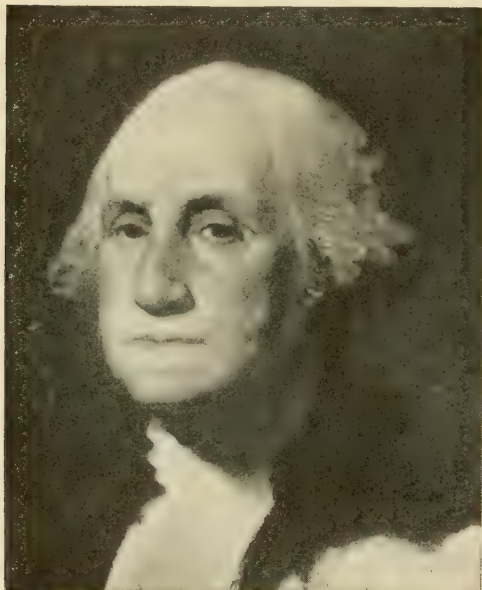
250. Second Continental Congress. The Second Continental Congress began its session on May 10, 1775, in the Old State House (now Independence Hall), Philadelphia. At its sessions:

- (a) it voted to raise an army of twenty thousand, the expense of which was to be paid by the united colonies;
- (b) George Washington was appointed, by unanimous vote, commander-in-chief of the Continental Army;
- (c) a petition to the king was prepared.

To this petition the king responded with the declaration that the Americans were rebels and traitors, and must be forced to

submit to the rule of the British crown. He even went so far as to hire soldiers from foreign powers to help him subjugate his rebel colonies. This Congress continued with occasional adjournment until March 1, 1781, when it was succeeded by the Congress of the Confederation.

251. Capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. On the day that the Second Continental Congress convened for the first time a company of "Green Mountain



GEORGE WASHINGTON

From the painting by Gilbert Stuart

Boys" from Vermont, under Ethan Allen and Benedict Arnold, surprised the British garrison at Fort Ticonderoga. Entering the fort in the night, Ethan Allen found the commander in bed. He ordered him to surrender. "In whose name?" demanded the bewildered officer, who had just been aroused from sleep. "In the name of the Great Jehovah and the Con-

tinental Congress!" replied Allen. No resistance was attempted. (Allen was an infidel, and as such his writings, especially his "Oracles of Reason," are considered highly objectionable from a Catholic standpoint. Allen's daughter, however, became a Catholic and joined the community of hospital nuns at Montreal, where she lived a saintly life.)

Crown Point was taken a few days later. By the capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point the patriots gained possession of valuable and sorely needed military stores. They furthermore obtained control of Lakes Champlain and George, the coveted water route between New York and Canada.

252. Battle of Bunker Hill. General Gage, having received re-enforcements from England, under command of Generals Howe, Clinton, and Burgoyne, now commanded at Boston a force of about eight thousand men. In his plans to fortify the heights, now known as Breed's Hill and Bunker Hill, Gage was forestalled by the Americans. The latter, led by Colonel Samuel Prescott, who was aided by Generals Warren and Putnam, quietly fortified the hill during the night. The next morning General Gage was both surprised and chagrined to find that he had been out-generaled. Forces under General Howe prepared at once to storm the American works. In two desperate attacks the British were driven back with a loss of one-third of their number, and only the exhaustion of American ammunition made their third assault a success (June). The British lost more than one thousand men, the Americans less than four hundred and fifty. Among the slain on the American side was the noble patriot, General Joseph Warren, commander-in-chief of the Massachusetts militia. The death of General Warren was the most serious loss in a single life during the war. The English lost Major Pitcairn.

The Bunker Hill conflict inspired the Americans with courage and hope. They learned that their troops were equal to those of the British army. The English learned the same lesson. They were astonished at the fighting qualities which the

colonists displayed at the Lexington encounter and at the battle of Bunker Hill.

253. Washington in Charge of the Army. On July 2, 1775, Washington took command of the American army under an elm tree (which is still standing, 1914), near Harvard University, Cambridge. The army which he found encamped before Boston was poorly clad, ill-equipped, and disorderly. How un-



CRAIGIE HOUSE, THE HOME OF LONGFELLOW

(Washington's Headquarters, 1775)

disciplined the American recruits were may be seen from the following incident: a captain asked a private to get a pail of water for the men. He received as answer, "I shan't. It's your turn now, captain; I got it last night." Washington spent the fall and winter in organizing the army. In this difficult task he was aided by Generals Greene (next to Washington the ablest commander in the war), Sullivan, Putnam, Gates, and others. By extraordinary exertions the army was

brought under discipline. Cannon were transported from Ticonderoga; the British stores in the Bermudas were seized; and powder was collected from all the country towns in the region.

254. Invasion of Canada—Congress Fails to Win the Canadians. In order to save Boston and New York City, measures had to be taken to prevent the British from invading New York from Canada by way of Lake Champlain, whereupon General Montgomery captured Montreal and hastened to join Benedict Arnold and Daniel Morgan. The troops of the latter had reached Quebec by way of Maine, footsore and hungry, after a long march through the forests. They besieged Quebec, the Gibraltar of America, for three weeks and then attacked the city, but failed to capture it. Montgomery was killed and Arnold wounded. In the spring the army retreated from Canada to Crown Point on Lake Champlain.

It was still hoped that Canada might be won over to the American cause. Consequently, while Arnold was in camp before Quebec, Congress sent Benjamin Franklin, Samuel Chase, Charles Carroll of Carrollton, and Father John Carroll to Montreal to propose coöperation, or, at least, to secure Canadian neutrality. They failed, however, in their mission.

The anti-Catholic attacks on the Quebec Act and the religious intolerance of the colonies in the past, had led the Canadians to believe that they might expect fairer treatment from England than from the Americans.

255. The Abnaki Indians Aid the Colonies. Washington asked aid of the Catholic Abnaki Indians of Maine, and deputies of all the tribes met and agreed to aid the colonies. Orono, the noble chief of the Penobscots, became an officer in the American army, and his Catholic kinsmen fought by his side. All these tribes were sincerely Catholic, and Puritan Massachusetts regretted that it could not give these Christian Indians a missionary of the same faith. Strange revolution!

SECOND YEAR OF THE WAR—1776

256. The British Leave Boston—Attack on Charleston Fails.

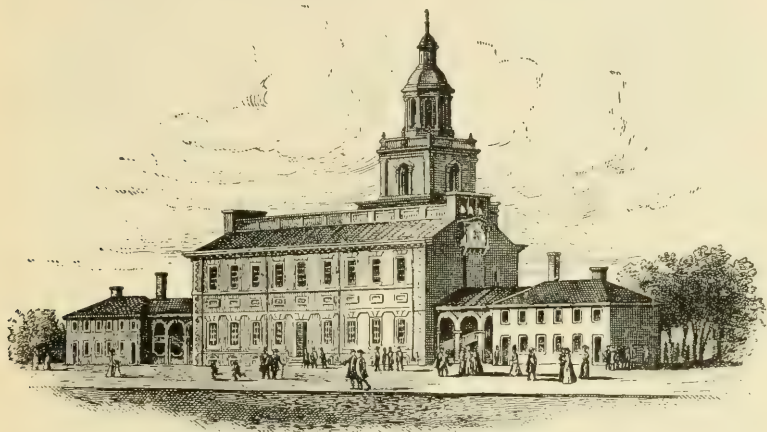
Washington, while disciplining his army, drew his lines closely around Boston. One night he seized and fortified Dorchester Heights. The next morning Howe, who had superseded Gage, saw that not only his army, but also his fleet, was at the mercy of Washington. He must choose either to fight or to get to sea. Remembering the lesson of Bunker Hill, he, with all his troops and some hundred Tories, sailed for Halifax, Nova Scotia (March). Washington, by this bloodless victory, freed New England from the enemy, secured a large quantity of ammunition and heavy guns, and raised the hope of the nation.

A British detachment, under Clinton, had left Boston some time previous to its evacuation, with the secret purpose of making an attack on New York. Washington forestalled the attack by sending General Charles Lee to raise volunteers in Connecticut to protect the city. Clinton, after failing in this plan, sailed south to attack Charleston. Here he was gallantly repulsed at Sullivan's Island in Charleston harbor, by the united forces of Colonel Moultrie and General Lee, the latter having followed Clinton by land (June). The fort from which Clinton's attack was repulsed bore ever after the name of its brave defender, Colonel Moultrie. In the heat of the battle, the flag of the fort was shot away, and fell outside. Sergeant Jasper, seeing this, cried: "Don't let us fight without a flag!" and, instantly leaping after it, seized it, fastened it to a staff, and in sight of the whole British fleet, amid a volley of bullets, fixed it once more firmly in its place.

Clinton finally sailed to join Howe. This was the first victory over the boasted "Mistress of the Seas" and caused universal rejoicing in America.

257. Steps toward Independence. Heretofore the majority of the colonists had hoped for a peaceful settlement with the mother country without a formal separation; but a year of

war and the fact that England hired soldiers (Hessians) to fight against her own subjects, led the Americans to debate earnestly the question of independence. A powerful pamphlet, written by Thomas Paine and read by thousands of people, boldly proclaimed that the time had come for a final separation from England, and that arms must decide the contest. This pamphlet, called "Common Sense," contained, together with much truth, some errors, and paved the way, as it were, for Paine's other pamphlets, such as "The Crisis."



INDEPENDENCE HALL, 1776

258. The Declaration of Independence. At the Congress convened on June 7, 1776, in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, Richard Henry Lee of Virginia offered the famous resolution: "that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states." The resolution was seconded by John Adams of Massachusetts. On July 2 the Independence resolution was passed and a committee, consisting of Thomas Jefferson (chairman), John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston, was appointed to draw up the Declaration of Independence. This Declaration was written

by Jefferson, and adopted July 4, 1776. On this date the colonies became free and independent states, and the Fourth of July was henceforth to be celebrated as the birthday of the nation. The Declaration closed with these words: "For the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes and our sacred honor." It was signed by fifty-six delegates from the various states. The signing of the Declaration of Independence was regarded in England as treason, the punishment of which crime was death. John Hancock, as president of the Congress, was the first to attach his signature. He wrote his name in a bold, clear hand, saying: "There, John Bull can read that without spectacles, and may now double his reward of five hundred pounds for my head." Then, turning, he added: "Gentlemen, we must all hang together." "Yes," replied Franklin, "or we shall all hang separately." It is said that when Charles Carroll affixed his signature, some one, alluding to his great wealth, said: "There go millions;" while another remarked: "No, there are several Charles Carrolls," whereupon the eminent signer added to his name the words: "Of Carrollton," saying as he did so, "they cannot mistake me now." Stephen Hopkins was afflicted with palsy; when he was writing his name a by-stander remarked, "Your hand trembles." The patriot answered, "True, but my heart does not."

The adoption of the Declaration of Independence caused great rejoicing throughout the country, except in Tory sections. The thirteen British colonies had ceased to exist. In their place stood a new nation—The United States of America. The old Liberty Bell rang out the glad tidings to all the land, while every steeple re-echoed it. In New York the excited patriots pulled down the leaden statue of George III on horseback and molded it into bullets for the use of the army. The people realized that they must make good this declaration of independence by a desperate struggle.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN
ROBERT MORRIS

THOMAS JEFFERSON
JOHN ADAMS

REVOLUTIONARY LEADERS

How they shouted! What rejoicings!
How the old bell shook the air,
Till the clang of freedom ruffled
The calm, gliding Delaware!

How the bonfires and the torches
Illumed the night's repose,
And from the flames, like fabled phoenix,
Our glorious Liberty arose!

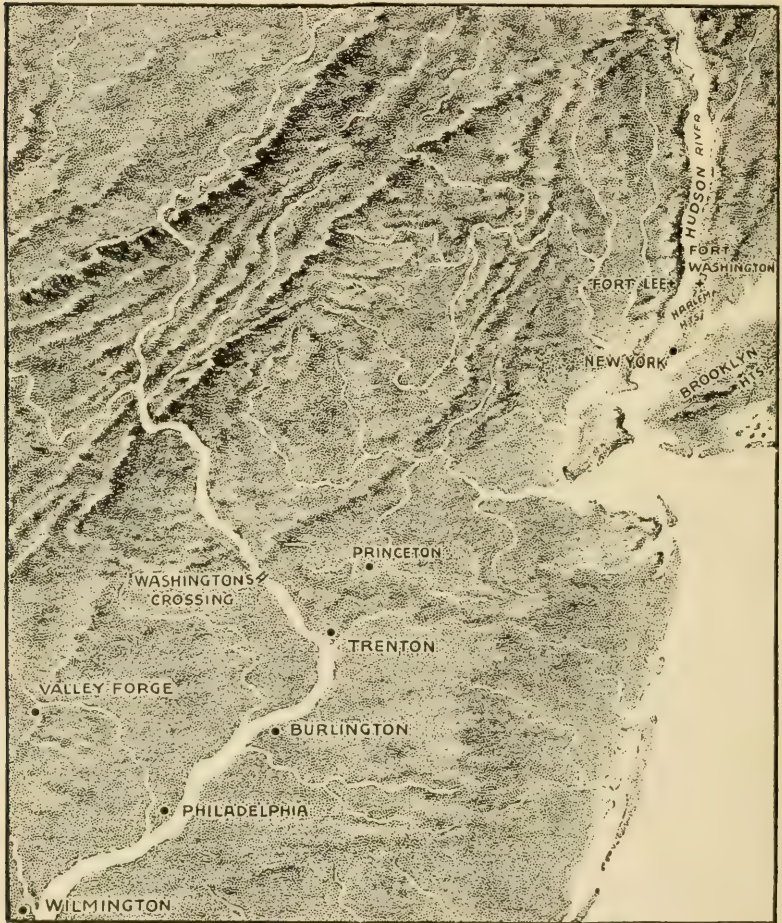
—*W. R. Wallace's "Liberty Bell."*

259. The Opposing Armies at New York. General Howe soon sailed from Halifax to New York and established his headquarters on Staten Island. Thither came his brother, Admiral Howe, with re-enforcements from England, and Clinton from his defeat at Fort Moultrie. Howe had now under his command about thirty thousand well-armed soldiers. Washington, divining the plans of the enemy, gathered all his available forces, about seventeen thousand men, at New York to protect the city. Fort Lee and Fort Washington were built on opposite sides of the Hudson. Brooklyn Heights on Long Island commanded New York City, and it was immediately fortified and placed under the command of General Putnam.

Putnam was one of the great number of recruits who had gathered at Cambridge after the battle of Lexington. He was plowing on his farm in Connecticut when the news of the battle reached him. Leaving his plow in the furrow and his oxen free, he sprang to his horse and never stopped until he reached the camp at Cambridge. Putnam was noted for reckless bravery, which well qualified him for bold and startling movements.

Great Britain, after her failure in New England, now planned to gain control of the Middle States. Her objects in this move were to separate the North from the South, and to cut off relations between the two great ringleaders—Massachusetts and Virginia. This could be best done by getting

possession of New York harbor, and of the water route to Canada by way of the Hudson River and Lake Champlain.



260. The Battle of Long Island. General Howe saw that, by securing Brooklyn Heights, he could, from this point, drive Washington out of New York, just as Washington had driven

him out of Boston. So he attacked a detachment of Putnam's army under Sullivan and defeated it with heavy loss (August). He did not, however, follow up his victory, and the wary Washington, under cover of a dense fog and burning camp fires, removed his entire army across East River to New York. Again, as at Bunker Hill and Dorchester Heights, the slow-witted Howe was out-generaled by Washington.

261. Washington's Masterly Retreat. Howe followed Washington to New York, and the latter, unable to hold the city against the superior forces of the enemy, retreated northward along the east side of the Hudson to Peekskill, encountering Howe's skirmishing parties at Harlem and White Plains (October).

Captain Nathan Hale, only twenty-one years of age, a former student of Yale College, a school teacher by profession, was sent by Washington to gain some information respecting the British in the city. Betrayed by an American Tory, he was captured by the enemy and executed, without trial, as a spy. His last words, "I only regret that I have but one life to give for my country," proved the undaunted patriotism of this brave hero.

Howe captured Forts Lee and Washington. Aroused by the losses he had suffered (New York, and Forts Washington and Lee), Washington left General Charles Lee to hold Peekskill, while he himself hurried across the Hudson to New Jersey to stand between the British and Philadelphia. The British, under Lord Cornwallis, also crossed the Hudson. Washington now ordered Lee, who was still on the east side of the river, to join him; but this treacherous commander refused, and Washington's only policy was that of retreat. Greatly outnumbered by the British, he fled rapidly before them through Newark, New Brunswick, Princeton, and Trenton, whence he crossed the Delaware into Pennsylvania. Since Washington had seized all the boats in reach, Cornwallis could not follow across the stream, so he returned to New York to

share in the Christmas festivities, declaring that he would wait till the river should be frozen over to "bag the old fox," as he styled Washington. General Charles Lee now started to follow his chief leisurely into New Jersey. He was soon captured

by the British; his troops, however, succeeded in joining Washington. Lee was a traitor. Jealous of Washington, and disappointed in his hope of securing the latter's position, he wished to see him fail.

The American situation, after the succession of disasters attending Washington's remarkably skillful retreat, was gloomy, and discouragement settled on the country. Washington was constantly losing men by sickness and desertion, until he had not more than five thousand under his command, while the British army was being re-enforced by the deserters from Washington's army, as well as by numerous Tories. The British generals began to think that the war was near its close. Cornwallis was even packing up to re-



HESSIAN SOLDIER

turn home. He thought that the Delaware would soon be bridged by ice and that he could then cross and capture Philadelphia, the rebel capital. After this his services would no longer be needed in America.

262. The Battle of Trenton. To raise the spirits of his troops and to remove the despair that seemed to be settling upon the country, Washington determined to strike a bold and almost reckless blow. On Christmas night, in a blinding storm of snow and sleet, and amid drifting ice, he crossed the Delaware at Trenton and made a sudden attack upon the British. He captured one thousand Hessian soldiers, and escaped to Pennsylvania with a loss of only four men. Colonel Rahl, the Hessian commander, was mortally wounded. This brilliant feat, the last of the events of 1776, kindled anew the fires of patriotism, and forced Cornwallis to decide to remain a little longer in America.

THIRD YEAR OF THE WAR—1777

263. The Battle of Princeton—Sore Straits. Immediately after the battle of Trenton, the second day of the new year, Washington recrossed the Delaware and faced Cornwallis at Trenton. The latter remarked that now he had the “old fox” penned and would “bag” him in the morning. But, while a few of his men were making a show of throwing up earth-works, Washington, under cover of night, marched around Cornwallis, defeated his rear guard at Princeton, and captured several hundred prisoners, together with a much-needed supply of ammunition. He then withdrew in safety to the Heights of Morristown, where he went into winter quarters. Cornwallis followed to Princeton, but finding that he was too late, returned to New York for the winter.

Washington's great military skill and the attendant victories of Trenton and Princeton sent a thrill of joy throughout the colonies from Maine to Georgia, and from the mountains to the sea. But Washington was in sore straits with his army. The term of service of many soldiers was about to expire, and these were eager to get back to their homes. Worst of all, they had received no pay to send to their families. Washington appealed to his friend, Robert Morris, a wealthy banker of

Philadelphia, for help. Morris promptly raised a large sum of money and the army was saved for the great campaigns of the year. On several other occasions during the war Morris gave financial support to the army. Final victory would have been impossible without the funds which he supplied, and, next to Washington, we owe American independence to the generosity and financial skill of Robert Morris. He eventually became poor and was cast into a debtor's prison, where he languished four years. He died (1806) a few years after his release.

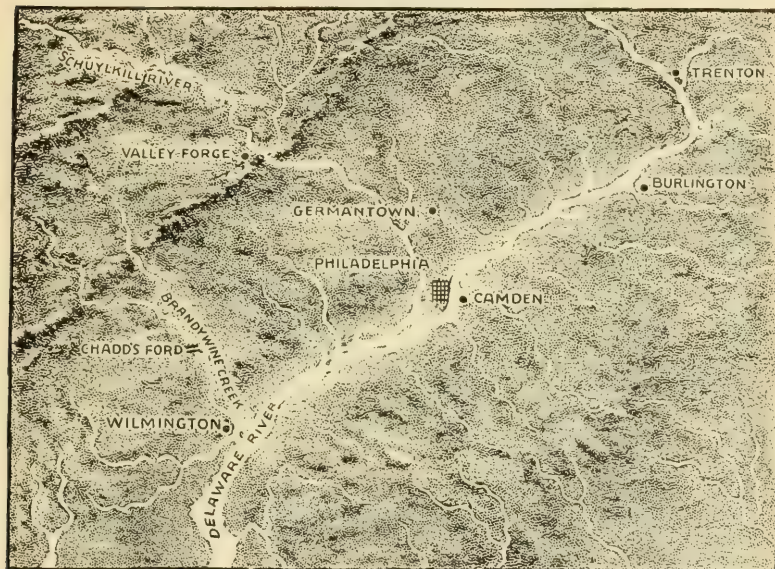
264. Noble Foreigners Lend Their Aid. Congress had made several efforts to induce the King of France to aid the patriot cause, but as an open treaty with America meant a war with England, France, for the time being, only secretly gave some assistance in money, arms, and supplies. Washington's war tactics and the bravery and patriotism of the American army at large were rapidly gaining recognition abroad. As a consequence, the distinguished foreigners, Marquis Lafayette and Baron De Kalb from France, Baron Steuben, a German soldier, and the brave Poles, Pulaski and Kosciusko, offered their services to Congress. These five officers merited the lasting gratitude of the American people.

CAMPAIGN IN PENNSYLVANIA

265. The Battles of Brandywine and Germantown. After spending the winter at New York, Howe tried to force a battle upon Washington. Failing in his repeated attempts, he suddenly sailed southward (June) with eighteen thousand men. Washington, too, hurried south and the armies met in battle at Brandywine Creek. The Americans were defeated by the superior number of the British troops, but Washington withdrew his army in good order to Philadelphia. Congress went to Lancaster and later to York in Pennsylvania (September). Washington was unable to defend the city and Howe entered it in triumph. The British then went into winter quarters there and also at Germantown. The noble foreigners, Lafayette,

De Kalb, and Pulaski, displayed great valor during the campaign in Pennsylvania.

Washington, in another bold surprise like the one at Trenton, fell upon the British at Germantown (October), but failed to capture them because of a dense fog which caused such confusion in his own ranks that one division attacked the other. The Americans now made their winter camp at Valley



PHILADELPHIA AND VICINITY

Forge, twenty miles from Philadelphia. Howe was two months on the way from New York to Pennsylvania. These were two precious months for Washington, whose masterly strategy in detaining General Howe in the vicinity of Philadelphia, prevented him from giving sorely needed aid to Burgoyne.

Washington had by this time gained the title of "the American Fabius." King Frederick II of Prussia, called "the

Great'' was the most celebrated general of his age. He well knew what it was to fight under tremendous difficulties, for at one time all Europe was combined against him. Speaking of Washington's movements in New Jersey (1776), he said they were the most brilliant in the annals of war. Of the American soldiers he said: "I like those brave fellows and cannot help hoping for their success."

CAMPAIGN IN NEW YORK—BURGOYNE'S INVASION

266. Plan of the Campaign. We have now seen the result of one of the campaigns planned by the British for this year; though not entirely favorable, it still proved instrumental in bringing about the success of the second campaign—the one in New York, which was to secure for the British the control of the entire Hudson. The British plan for this campaign was threefold:

- (a) Burgoyne, with a strong army, was to come down from Canada by way of Lake Champlain and the Hudson;
- (b) a small body of Canadians and Indians, under Colonel St. Leger, was to ascend the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario to Oswego, and capture Fort Stanwix, near where Rome is now situated, and finally join Burgoyne on the Hudson;
- (c) General Howe, with the main army, was to march up the Hudson, capture the American forts, and join Burgoyne and St. Leger at Albany.

But Howe, as we have seen, was delayed by Washington in the south and hence failed to carry out his part of the plan. He did not get his orders from England until long after Burgoyne's surrender. They had been lying forgotten in the desk of the minister of war, awaiting his signature.

267. Capture of Crown Point, Ticonderoga, and Edward. General Burgoyne ascended the Sorel River and Lake Champlain with an army of about eight thousand men, including Englishmen, Canadians, Germans, American Tories, and In-

dians. On his way, he captured, one after the other, Forts Crown Point, Ticonderoga, and Edward (July). Though Burgoyne made a brilliant beginning, he soon met with great difficulties. The country was swampy and heavily wooded and Schuyler, who had been defeated at Ticonderoga and Crown Point because he could not hold the forts against the superior number of Burgoyne's troops, now greatly retarded the progress of the latter by felling trees across the roads and destroying bridges. Burgoyne, moreover, had no supplies with him. They had to be sent to him from Canada, and the farther he advanced, the more difficult it was to procure supplies for his army.

268. The Battle of Oriskany. In the meantime, the British and Indian forces under St. Leger, and the Mohawk chief, Brandt, had succeeded in getting as far as Oriskany, near Fort Stanwix, where they met a small American army under General Herkimer. Here was fought one of the bloodiest battles of the war. The result was indecisive. Later, by a stratagem of Arnold, who had come with re-enforcements, the British were driven precipitately from the fort. A half-witted Tory boy, who had been taken prisoner by the Americans, was promised his freedom if he would go to St. Leger's camp and spread the report that a large American army was advancing. With a dozen bullet holes in his clothes, he rushed into the camp of the besiegers and described his narrow escape from the enemy and by mysteriously pointing to the leaves on the trees he intimated that the enemy was in immense force. This so terrified the Indians and British that they fled, leaving their equipment and guns behind them. So this part of the British plan met with complete failure.

After the victory at Oriskany, a captured British flag was run up at Fort Stanwix, now re-named Fort Schuyler, and above it was hoisted the first American flag. This was the stars and stripes, which Congress had adopted as the national emblem, on June 14, the day now celebrated as "Flag Day." This

first flag had been hastily patched together from a white shirt, a blue jacket, and a red flannel petticoat.

269. The Battle of Bennington. Burgoyne, on learning that the Americans had stored some provisions and military sup-



CONTINENTAL ARTILLERY

plies at the village of Bennington, Vermont, dispatched a force to capture them. General Stark, with the New Hampshire militia, met the British at Bennington and defeated them (August). To animate his soldiers, General Stark, before the opening of the battle, appealing to their sympathies, exclaimed:

“My fellow soldiers, we must conquer today or Molly Stark is a widow.”

270. The Battle of Bemis Heights. Burgoyne now found himself hemmed in by the rapidly increasing American forces under General Gates, who had superseded Schuyler. He crossed the Hudson and struggled slowly onward down the west bank of the river toward the Mohawk, hoping against hope to hear from either Howe or St. Leger. He met the Americans under Arnold and Morgan in the desperate battle at Bemis Heights (September). The battle was undecided, but was followed by the utter defeat of the British at Stillwater, a little to the south of Bemis Heights.

Gates took no direct part in these battles and was not actually present on the field of either. He was a vain, weak general of little ability, and the action of Congress in displacing General Schuyler, against the wishes of Washington, has been generally considered unwise.

271. Burgoyne's Surrender at Saratoga—Results. The American forces, step by step, drove Burgoyne back to Saratoga, where, cut off from all supplies and almost completely surrounded by the American army, he surrendered to General Gates on October 17, after a desperate battle. His army of six thousand men laid down their arms.

Though the surrender was made to General Gates, the credit of the momentous victory belonged, first, to General Schuyler, because of his previous plans wisely laid for managing the campaign, and next, to the gallant leadership of Arnold and Morgan. Though deprived of his command by Gates, Arnold, while watching the progress of the battle, could not restrain himself. Hastily mounting his steed, he dashed to the head of his troops, and led them to victory. The terms of the surrender were embodied in an agreement known as the Saratoga Convention. According to this, the British troops were to march to Boston and there embark on transports furnished by the British government, on condition that they should not again

serve in North America until exchanged. Congress repudiated this agreement and held the troops as prisoners.

The surrender of General Burgoyne proved to be the turning point of the war:

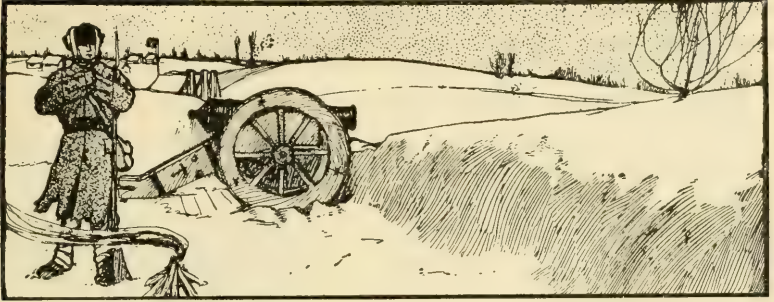
- (a) it completely broke up the English plans for the war;
- (b) it influenced France to recognize American independence and thus secured for the colonies the aid of England's old and powerful enemy;
- (c) it inspired the American patriots with hope and confidence.

272. The Articles of Confederation. At the same time that the Declaration of Independence was framed, a committee had been appointed to draw up a plan of government for the new nation. This plan, called the Articles of Confederation, was adopted by Congress (1777) and by the State Assemblies (1776-1781). By these Articles, or laws, the colonies were governed from 1781 to the adoption of the Constitution (1789).

CHAPTER XIV

SECOND PERIOD OF THE WAR—1777-1781

FOURTH YEAR OF THE WAR—1778



273. The Hardships at Valley Forge. The second period of the war is distinguished chiefly for two facts; namely, France entered into an alliance with the Americans; and the war was carried on chiefly in the south and in a more aggressive manner.

While Howe and his soldiers were having an enjoyable time in their winter quarters at Philadelphia, Washington and his army at Valley Forge were bravely struggling through the gloomiest season of the war. Owing to mismanagement by Congress and the Commissary Department, the soldiers were poorly fed, clad, and housed, although there were provisions lying unused at various places. But amidst all the untold sufferings of that terrible winter Washington's sublime courage inspired those about him. He finally succeeded in enlisting many regiments to serve during the entire war. These were called Continentals, and Baron Steuben taught these crude warriors the fine maneuvers of the soldiers of the Prussian army and the skillful use of the bayonet. Thus, by spring,

these disorderly recruits were transformed into a well-disciplined army.

A touching story is told of Washington at Valley Forge. One day while Mr. Potts, Washington's host, passed through the woods, his attention was attracted by the sound of an earnest voice. Upon approaching, Potts discovered the sorrow-burdened commander-in-chief on his knees, praying with tearful eyes. Potts related the incident to his wife, adding, "Under such a commander, the Americans will surely secure their independence."

274. The Conway Cabal. To add to Washington's trials at Valley Forge, a conspiracy was formed against him. His "Fabian policy" did not fail to call forth the criticism of jealous and ambitious characters, who, envious of his fame, endeavored to have him removed from the army and to have Gates supersede him. The movement, known as the Conway Cabal, from one of its leaders, not only proved a failure in its purpose, but served rather to raise Washington higher than ever in the esteem of his countrymen and to place him stronger than ever in his position. Later Conway wrote Washington a letter expressing sorrow for what he had done.

275. Foreign Aid. Silas Deane, sent to Paris (1776) to urge an alliance with France, was joined by Benjamin Franklin and Arthur Lee after the Declaration of Independence. Not until hearing of the brilliant victory at Saratoga did King Louis XVI yield. France now recognized the United States as an independent power, and, entering into an alliance, sent troops and a fleet to aid the Americans, in return for their pledge not to make peace with England until she had acknowledged their independence (February). This caused war between France and England. France was persuaded to form an alliance with America largely through the able efforts of Benjamin Franklin. Though already seventy years of age, his wonderful intellect, as also his reputation as a scientist, and his simple, straightforward manner charmed the French people. In admiration

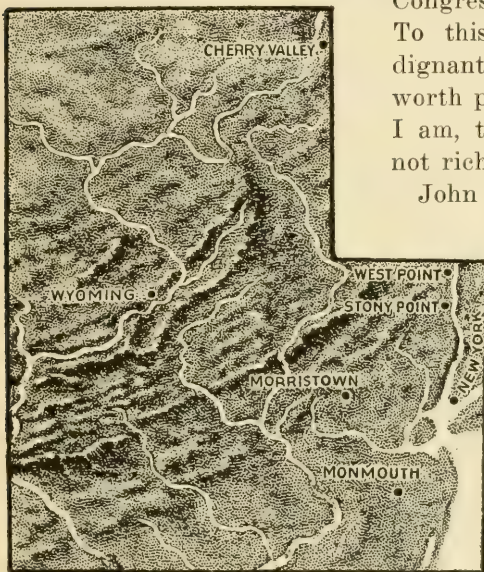
they spoke of him as "the man who can snatch lightning from the clouds and scepters from kings' hands."

The Americans saw in the French alliance a promise of final success. It sent a thrill of joy throughout the land and infused new hope and courage in Washington in his camp at Valley Forge. George III now offered to grant the Americans almost everything they had demanded except independence (June), but nothing short of this would now be accepted. The British even had recourse to bribery, which, however, was scornfully rejected. General Joseph Reed of Philadelphia was offered a large sum of money and high honors if he would try to influence

Congress toward reconciliation. To this the noble patriot indignantly replied, "I am not worth purchasing; but such as I am, the king of England is not rich enough to buy me."

John Jay was sent to Spain to solicit help and that country loaned him money.

276. Philadelphia Evacuated. When General Henry Clinton, who had succeeded Howe, learned that a French fleet was making for the American coast, he



evacuated Philadelphia (June 18), and with his troops and some three thousand Tories, set out for New York. Clinton, fearing he might be closed up in Philadelphia as Howe had been in Boston, wished to re-enforce his army in New York against a possible American attack. General Howe, who never

believed in the British war policy, resigned and, like Burgoyne, returned to England.

277. The Battle of Monmouth. Washington, emerging from Valley Forge, followed Clinton across New Jersey and attacked him at Monmouth Court House (June 28). Lee had been directed to attack Clinton's flank while Washington himself was to make an attack the moment the enemy were thrown into confusion. Instead, however, the treacherous Lee ordered a retreat. Washington, who had been informed of the fact by Lafayette, rode up at this perilous moment and, after severely rebuking Lee, promptly rallied the men, who at once fell into order, wheeled about, and rushed forward for a new attack. Washington, however, failed to win a decisive victory. During the night the British withdrew and Clinton took up his position in New York, while Washington occupied his old camp at White Plains.

278. Movements of the First French Fleet. Ten days after Clinton had evacuated Philadelphia, a French fleet, under D'Estaing, a kinsman of Lafayette, anchored (July) in Delaware Bay. Finding Philadelphia evacuated, he followed Clinton to New York. Here D'Estaing could not venture a battle because two of his ships were too large to cross the bar at Sandy Hook. So he proceeded to Newport, where, in conjunction with a land force under General Sullivan, he prepared to capture the only city, besides New York, still held by the British. But Admiral Howe appeared on the scene and the two opposing fleets prepared for battle. They were ready for action when a sudden storm scattered them and forced Admiral D'Estaing to put into Boston Harbor for repairs. Sullivan, thus left without help, was forced to retreat. D'Estaing soon moved off to the West Indies to defend the French possessions there.

279. Beginnings of Kentucky and Tennessee. Before the war, the British had dominion over all the territory north of the Ohio, between the Mississippi and the Alleghanies. This region was, however, claimed by various colonies, by authority

of their original charters. A North Carolina hunter, Daniel Boone, with his family, began a settlement in Kentucky (1775) and called it Boonesboro. Other settlers followed him from Virginia and North Carolina. About the same time that Boone went to Kentucky, pioneers from North Carolina settled Tennessee, first on the Watauga River and then at the present site of Nashville. James Robertson and John Sevier were two of the famous leaders under whose command the pioneers completely defeated the Cherokee Indians who constantly menaced the safety of the settlements.

280. Indian Massacres. In the summer of this year, the combined forces of Tories and Iroquois, accompanied by the Tory general, Butler, advanced from Niagara, fell upon the defenseless inhabitants of Wyoming Valley, Pennsylvania, and here perpetrated one of the most horrible massacres in history. Cherry Valley, a village in New York, met a similar fate from the Tories under John Johnson (son of Sir William Johnson) and the Iroquois, led by the celebrated chief Joseph Brandt. This chief had been well educated and had even visited England, where, highly honored, he sat at table with members of Parliament.

The news of these awful outrages sent a thrill of horror throughout the civilized world, and a part of Washington's army, under General Sullivan, hastened (1779) to punish the Indians. Sullivan met and overthrew the combined forces of Johnson, Butler, and Brandt with great slaughter, at the present site of Elmira (July). He completely laid waste the Indian villages, and destroyed their harvests. In the winter following, which was unusually severe, intense cold together with starvation and disease, finished the work of destruction, and the power of the Six Nations was broken forever.

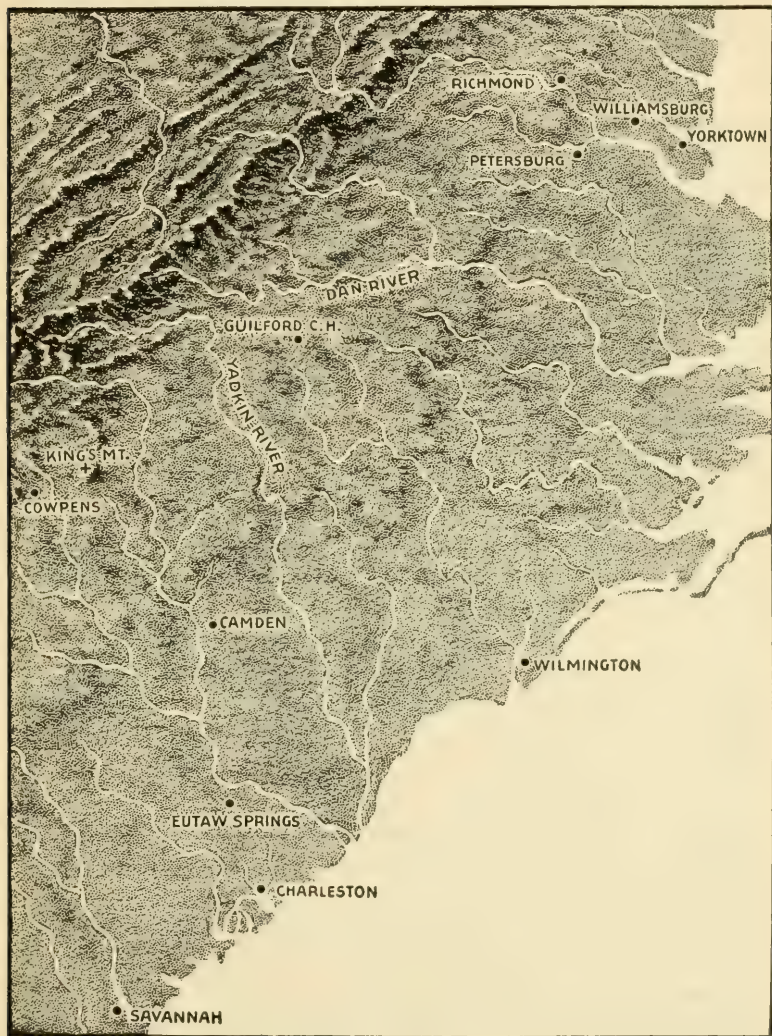
281. Clark's Conquest of the Northwest. Colonel Hamilton, the British commander at Detroit, planned to stir up the Indians of the West to attack the whole frontier and wipe out the young western settlements. Hearing of this, Patrick Henry, gov-

ernor of Virginia, sent (June) a force under Major George Rogers Clark to seize the English posts between the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. The French settlers at Kaskaskia and Cahokia, influenced by Father Gibault, readily submitted. Clark next made friends with the Spanish at St. Louis, on the opposite bank, and then advanced on Vincennes, the most important British post of the region. Through the friendly services of Father Gibault, Vincennes, too, yielded peaceably. The British under Hamilton retook the fort, but Clark soon recaptured it (May, 1779). Thus, one of the most important expeditions of the war came to a favorable issue and the Americans secured control of the whole Northwest, from Pennsylvania to the Mississippi, and from the Great Lakes to the Ohio. This Northwest Territory, as it was called, had been reserved by Great Britain, as "Crown lands" exclusively for the Indians, and the American colonists had been forbidden to occupy it. Next to Clark, the United States is indebted to the kindly services of Father Gibault for the accession of the Northwest Territory. This good Father was for a long time the only priest in Illinois and Indiana. At the time of Clark's conquest of the Northwest, he not only induced the French as well as the Catholic Indians to submit without protest, but also encouraged them to espouse the American cause. He administered to them, in his own church, the oath of allegiance to Congress and blessed the arms of the volunteers.

282. The King's New Plan for the War. After three years of war, the English had failed to subdue either New England (1775-1776) or the Middle Colonies (1776-1777), and were no better off than when the war began. They now planned a new way of conquering America. The royal army, starting at the South, was to move northward and cut off one state after another.

283. British Successes in Georgia. Under General Clinton's direction, Savannah was captured (December). General Prevost, leading his forces northward from Florida, conquered

the rest of Georgia. The royal governor was reinstated and Great Britain could once more boast of a royal province among



the colonies. Prevost next marched against Charleston, but was driven back by Benjamin Lincoln, who commanded the American forces in the South. Thus the close of the year (1778) left the British in possession of Georgia.

FIFTH YEAR OF THE WAR—1779

284. The Capture of Stony Point and Paulus Hook. Since the battle of Monmouth (June, 1778), Washington had done little but watch Clinton. The latter held the city of New York, whence he sent out expeditions which robbed and burned towns in New England, New Jersey, and Virginia. In the trail of blood and cruelty which everywhere they left their warfare resembled that of savages rather than that of civilized men. Washington had already strongly fortified West Point on the Hudson, but to make the upper river more secure he built forts on the opposite banks, at Stony and Verplanck Points. The British, however, captured Stony Point before its completion. Washington, in consequence, sent General Wayne to recapture it.

General Wayne, surnamed "Mad Anthony," because of his brilliant feats at arms, became the popular hero of the Revolution. He had accidentally obtained the countersign, "The fort is ours," from a negro acquainted at the fort. With it he deceived the unsuspecting sentinel, who, while chatting with the negro, was seized and made powerless. Meanwhile, Wayne with a force of picked men trained by Steuben entered the fort (July).

Shortly after, Henry Lee, called "Lighthorse Harry," gallantly led a small force of chosen men and captured the British garrison on Paulus Hook, a narrow neck of land extending into the Hudson from New Jersey.

The Lees of Virginia played a remarkable part in American history. Richard Henry introduced the resolution for the Declaration of Independence; Francis Lightfoot was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence; Arthur was an

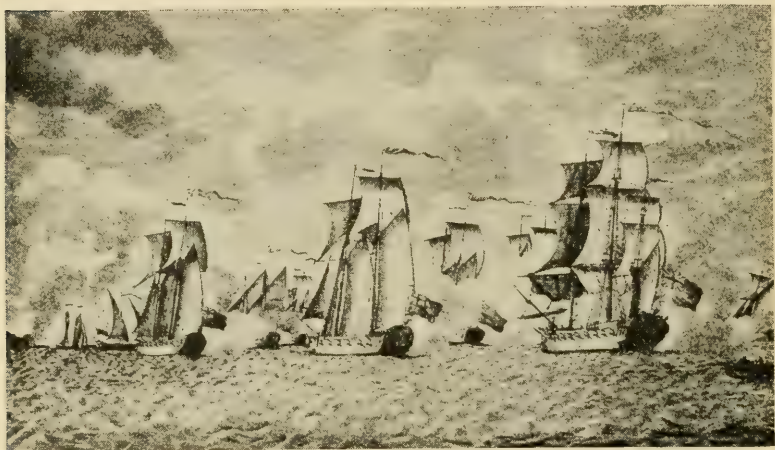
agent of the colonies, successively, in London, Madrid, Paris, and Berlin; "Lighthouse Harry" was a noted leader of the partisan bands and father of Robert E. Lee, the commander-in-chief of the Confederate Army in the Civil War. The General Charles Lee who was court-martialed and later expelled from the army, was no relative of these Virginia heroes.

285. Privateering. The American cause was greatly hampered by the lack of a strong naval force. Though France was ready to assist with her powerful fleets, these were of little aid before the siege of Yorktown, except that they helped to keep England occupied on the sea. It is true, England had little to fear from our navy, but she suffered much from American privateers. They plowed the waters of the English Channel, the Irish Sea, and of many other parts of the world. After France, Spain, and Holland had declared war against England, the navies of these countries were also used in privateering against the British. During the Revolution seven hundred and ninety-two American privateers captured as prizes six hundred British vessels, valued at eighteen million dollars. As a result, so much harm was done to England's shipping that her ship-owners and merchants bitterly opposed the war, while the colonies were literally supporting their forces from captured British goods.

286. Exploits of John Barry. Captain John Barry, a native of Ireland and a Catholic, was one of the truest heroes of the Revolution. He was distinguished for his skill in equipping and handling vessels, as well as for his bravery. He is justly termed the "Father and Founder of the American Navy." Two of his ships, the *Lexington* and the *Alfred*, were the first to hoist the American Stars and Stripes. As commander of the *Lexington*, Barry captured the British man-of-war *Edward*. He fought battles everywhere along the coast, inflicting severe losses on the enemy. He was placed by Congress (1794) at the head of the list of commanders in the navy.

At the outbreak of the Revolution, Barry gave up, to use

his own manly words, "the finest merchandise ship and the first employ in America" to serve the cause of Independence. Lord Howe offered him the command of a fine British ship and a large sum of money, if he would deliver up the vessel then under his command and join the British. Barry indignantly gave the noble answer: "I have devoted myself to the cause of America, and the whole British fleet can not seduce me from it." Barry has often been referred to as "Commodore." There was no such rank in the United States navy until 1862. "Cap-

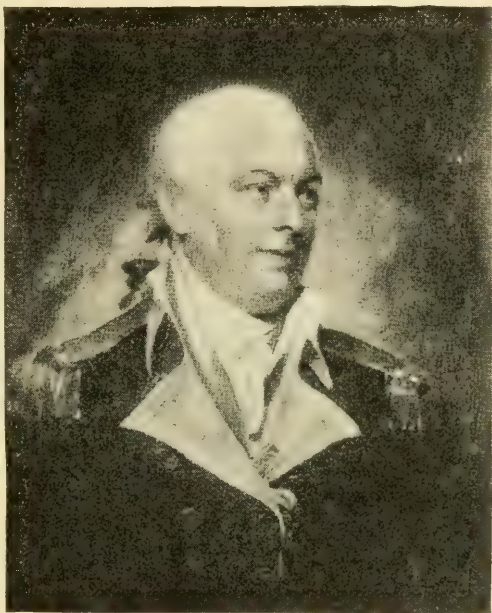


A SEA FIGHT OF THE PERIOD

tain" was the highest rank before that date. "Commodore" was, however, non-officially applied to a captain while in command of two or more vessels.

287. Paul Jones' Triumph. John Paul Jones, lieutenant of the *Alfred*, a small vessel of Barry's squadron, won for America the greatest triumph on the sea. In his little ship *Ranger* (1778) he incessantly menaced the safety of British vessels, not only on the open sea, but in the very ports of the nation; at one time he would dash in and set fire to a ship at anchor;

at another, pounce down upon a vessel at sea, and then again, like a gust of wind, whirl about and be off, out of harm's reach. With the help of Franklin and the French king, Louis XVI, Jones was at length placed in command of a small squadron of three vessels. To his flagship he gave the name of *Bon Homme Richard*. With the American flag flying from the mast-head of this vessel, he set sail with his little squadron and soon encountered (September) at Flamborough Head a fleet of English merchant vessels convoyed by two men-of-war, the *Serapis* and the *Scarborough*. He at once gave chase and coming up to the *Serapis*, lashed her and his own ship together. After a brilliant but deadly hand-to-hand fight which raged far into the night, the *Serapis* surrendered. Meanwhile the *Scar-*



CAPTAIN JOHN BARRY

borough had been captured by one of the other ships. This battle was one of the most memorable and desperate ever fought upon the ocean, and it greatly humiliated the haughty "Mistress of the Sea."

288. An Attack on Savannah Fails. Admiral D'Estaing, arriving from the West Indies, where he had cruised since the disastrous attempt upon Newport, now coöperated with Lincoln

in an attempt to recapture Savannah (September). They were driven back, however, with a dreadful loss of life. Among the dead were the gallant Polish officer, Pulaski, and the hero of Fort Moultrie, Sergeant Jasper. D'Estaing returned to the Indies and Lincoln withdrew to South Carolina.

SIXTH YEAR OF THE WAR—1780

289. The British Take Charleston. Clinton and Cornwallis now came with an army from New York. Together with Prevost, they moved (May), this time not by way of Fort Moultrie, but overland from Savannah against Charleston. The city was first besieged, then bombarded. De Kalb, sent by Washington, was on his way to help Lincoln, but was too late to save the city. So Lincoln, cut off from escape and help, was forced to surrender. He and his force of some three thousand continentals, together with the state militia, became prisoners of war. This was the severest blow the Americans had yet received. The capture of Lincoln's army left South Carolina in the hands of Lord Cornwallis, Tarleton, and Ferguson, who endeavored everywhere to force the stricken inhabitants to acknowledge the royal cause, and treated as rebels and traitors those who refused to do so.

290. The Battle of Camden. Congress now recalled Gates from his plantation and placed him in command of the Southern army, although Washington would have preferred to entrust it to Greene. Without considering the fact that in North Carolina there was no Schuyler to plan the campaign in advance, and no Arnold or Morgan to assist in carrying it out, Congress, nevertheless, hoped that Cornwallis would eventually surrender to Gates as Burgoyne had done at Saratoga. Gates hurriedly collected a new army in North Carolina, including De Kalb and his brave continentals who had been schooled by Steuben at Valley Forge. He at once advanced (August) to Camden, where he met Cornwallis and sustained the most disastrous defeat inflicted upon the American army during the

war. In vain did De Kalb and his brave Maryland and Delaware continentals try to hold their ground. De Kalb fell, mortally wounded, while his brave comrades fought desperately to the last over his body. Gates, after a succession of remarkable blunders, rode panic-stricken from the field, leaving the army to its fate. This was the second American army destroyed in the South in three months and the whole country was practically in the hands of the British. After this Gates retired from service in utter disgrace. It is related that Charles Lee said to Gates when about to leave his Virginia plantation to take command of the army in the South, "Take care that your Northern laurels do not change to Southern willows."

291. The Battle of King's Mountain. Cornwallis now triumphantly pushed on toward North Carolina, but hearing that one of his officers, Major Ferguson, had been defeated in a sharp battle at King's Mountain (October) by an intrepid body of backwoodsmen, including a brave band from west of the mountains under Sevier, he retraced his steps and took up his abode at Winnsborough in order to maintain control of the South. The brilliant American victory at King's Mountain, sometimes called the "Bennington of the South," greatly crippled Cornwallis, for in it he lost some four hundred of his men, including Ferguson, one of the bravest of the British officers.

292. Exploits of the Partisan Corps. South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida were in the hands of the British and at the mercy of plundering raids of British Tories; but the brave state militia under the heroic leaders, Marion, Sumter, Pickens, and Henry Lee gave the British little peace in their regained province. These citizen soldiers, composed of small bands of patriots, often less than one hundred men, were called "partisan corps." They knew all the paths through the woods and marshes and were constantly on the alert to thwart hostile plans and movements. Their way of fighting surprised the British even more than that of the minute-men at Lexington and Concord. They were armed with home-made swords, rode

the fleetest horses, hid in swamps and mountains, and seldom slept two nights in the same place. They would destroy a Tory camp, cut off stragglers from the main army, shoot pellmell into the enemy's quarters, and be off, and safe and sound in a distant hiding place almost before any one knew what had happened. Marion and his men were particularly famous. He was called by the British the "swamp fox," while Sumter, equally valiant, was considered by Cornwallis "the greatest plague in the country." He acquired the title of "Carolina Game Cock."

Our band is few, but true and tried, our leader frank and bold,
The British soldier trembles when Marion's name is told;
Our fortress is the good green wood, our tent the cypress tree;
We know the forest round us as seamen know the sea.

—Bryant's "*Song of Marion's Men.*"

293. Arnold's Treason. To complete the year of disaster, Benedict Arnold, who had gained so many laurels at Ticonderoga, Quebec, and Saratoga, and was so highly esteemed for his generosity and gallantry as soldier, deserted the patriot cause and became a traitor. He secretly had treasonable communication with Clinton and agreed to surrender West Point to him for the infamous reward of some thirty thousand dollars and a general's commission in the British army (September). This fort was the most important post in the country, since it controlled the whole line of the Hudson. Clinton had declared: "If we succeed in capturing West Point we shall soon end the rebellion."

Benedict Arnold had received from Washington the command of Philadelphia after the withdrawal of Clinton. Here he lived very extravagantly and being eventually court-martialed for appropriating government money, was sentenced to be publicly reprimanded by the commander-in-chief. Washington, however, mindful of Arnold's brilliant exploits in the service of his country, performed the painful duty with great gentleness, sparing Arnold's feelings as much as possible.

Arnold, however, was stung to resentment and planned revenge. Pretending that the severe wounds received at Quebec and Saratoga unfitted him for field duty, he asked and obtained from Washington the command of West Point. He now saw his opportunity, and subsequently meeting the British agent, Major André, some distance south of West Point, on the west bank of the Hudson, made arrangements for the surrender of the fort.

The traitor escaped and was given a command in the British army. After the war he lived in great obscurity in England and was universally despised. On one occasion, a member of Parliament in the act of addressing the House noticed Arnold in the gallery, upon which he exclaimed, pointing to the traitor, "Mr. Speaker, I will not speak while that man is in the House." Arnold carefully preserved his old uniform in which he had made his escape from West Point. Just before his death he asked to be clothed in it. "Let me die," said he, "in this old uniform in which I fought my battles. May God forgive me for ever putting on any other." Arnold's treachery was too much for even the stout-hearted Washington. On receiving the papers found on André's person, the greatly grieved chief burst into tears, and with a choked voice disclosed the affair to Lafayette. The latter said that this was the only occasion during the long and seemingly hopeless struggle in which Washington gave way for a moment before a reverse of fortune.

294. The Capture of André. Major André, after having made arrangements with Arnold for the surrender of West Point, prepared to return to the British camp. He was disappointed to find that his ship, the *Vulture*, had dropped down the river. He was obliged to cross the stream and proceed by land. Near Tarrytown he was captured by three patriots who were on the lookout for British freebooters. Upon searching André they found in his stockings papers containing plans of the fort and the mode of its expected surrender. André was tried and hanged as a spy (October) according to the usage of war.

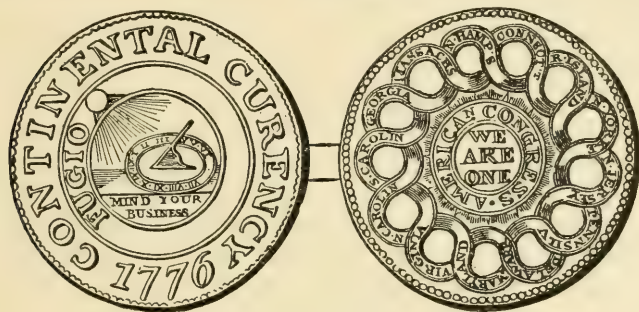
SEVENTH YEAR OF THE WAR—1781

295. Discontent in the Army. The opening of the year 1781 found great discontent in the American army. The gloom of Arnold's awful act of treason seemed to be reflected in the American winter camp at Morristown. The troops suffered scarcely less than did those at Valley Forge. They had for a long time received no pay, and, driven to desperation by hunger and want of clothing, they began to revolt. The soldiers of the Pennsylvania regiment, on New Year's eve, unable longer to endure their sufferings, marched out with their arms to demand relief from Congress. At Princeton, messengers from Clinton tried to induce them to join the British army. This brought them to their senses, and after a committee of Congress, waiting on them at this place, had satisfied their demands, they marched back to camp. Other mutinies followed, but the soldiers were eventually pacified and subdued by promises of Congress and by Washington's personal appeal, as well as by severe measures. Afterwards, through the exertions of Robert Morris, loans were made in France, Spain, and Holland. Congress met with great difficulty in its efforts to raise money to pay the troops. It could not tax the people, or get enough from the states by asking for it. The promissory notes of Congress, commonly called paper money, were not, as they are now, as good as gold or silver coin, because the government had no money to redeem its promises. Consequently, continental currency became almost worthless, depreciating in value to two cents per dollar in 1779, and to nothing at all in the year following; hence, the phrase, "not worth a continental."

296. The Beginning of Winning Back the South—The Battle of Cowpens. It has been seen that the numerous defeats of the Americans in the South during the past year were followed closely by an American victory at King's Mountain. This battle, won by the brave Carolina mountaineers, was the beginning of the winning back of the South. By the advice of Washing-

ton, General Nathaniel Greene was now appointed to succeed General Gates in the South. With the aid of the brave Daniel Morgan, the remnant of De Kalb's continentals, the clever Steuben, and the undaunted leaders of the "partisan corps," Greene succeeded in raising a third army in the South. He began by following the tactics of Washington in New Jersey, constantly making sudden and unexpected dashes on the enemy and quickly getting away.

Greene now sent General Morgan against Tarleton, Corn-



CONTINENTAL CURRENCY

wallis's ablest officer. The two armies met at Cowpens, South Carolina (January). Morgan not only defeated Tarleton's army, but nearly destroyed it. Tarleton was severely wounded and narrowly escaped being captured by Colonel William Washington, a distant cousin of George Washington. This brilliant victory, like that at King's Mountain, greatly crippled Cornwallis and interfered with his plans. At King's Mountain Cornwallis lost his best corps of scouts, and at Cowpens his light infantry. He sorely needed both in his subsequent pursuit of Greene.

297. Greene's Masterly Retreat. Knowing that the main body of the British army was not far distant, Morgan, with his prisoners, hurried off and joined General Greene in North Carolina. Cornwallis, hearing of Tarleton's defeat, hastily

destroyed his heavy baggage and set out in hot pursuit of the victors. As Greene's army was too weak to face Cornwallis, he retreated and, step by step, led the latter a roundabout chase farther and farther into a hostile country, far away from his base of supplies at Charleston. Greene finally made a narrow escape across the Dan into Virginia, and here Cornwallis gave up the chase (January and February). Greene promptly gathered additional troops, recrossed the Dan into North Carolina, and gave battle to the British near Guilford Court House.

The Americans were defeated by the superior discipline of the enemy, but the latter bought their victories dearly, losing about one-fourth of their whole army. The soldiers were so famished and tired out, that Cornwallis could not even return south to Charleston, and withdrew to Wilmington, where communication with the English fleet at Charleston would be easy. From here he was shortly afterward ordered by Clinton to the peninsula of Yorktown, Virginia, which he proceeded to fortify. Lafayette and Steuben immediately crept upon the neck of the peninsula, ready for action.

298. Greene's Recovery of the South. Greene had followed Cornwallis far enough to see him closed up in Wilmington. Then sure of having him out of the way, he struck into the South. With the help of Marion, Sumter, and Lee, he made a masterly campaign extending over six months, driving the British and Tories before him toward Charleston. At Hobkirk's Hill, near Camden, Greene was attacked and defeated by the British under Rawdon. The enemy was, however, badly crippled and, to save his army, Rawdon beat a hasty retreat to Charleston, leaving Camden to Greene. Pushing onward and gaining many small victories with the help of Lee and Marion, Greene again met the British and was defeated by them at Eutaw Springs (September). This was practically the last battle of the South. Thus in thirteen months Greene had recovered the Carolinas and Georgia from British rule.

299. Cornwallis Entrapped at Yorktown—Siege of Yorktown.

Meanwhile, Cornwallis had joined Arnold, who had a command in Virginia. After vainly trying to force Lafayette to engage in battle, and destroying millions of dollars' worth of property, he withdrew to Yorktown, whence, according to Clinton's orders, he could easily re-enforce the army in New York City in case its capture should be attempted by Washington in coöperation with a French fleet.

Washington, hearing that a powerful French fleet, commanded by Count De Grasse, was making toward Chesapeake Bay, saw his opportunity. His army on the Hudson had been re-enforced by six thousand French troops under Count Rochambeau. Leaving behind a small force to feign an attack upon New York, Washington secretly slipped away with his combined forces to the head of Chesapeake Bay, and thence on the French fleet to Yorktown, where he joined Lafayette before Clinton was fully aware of what had happened. The French fleet at once blocked the James and York rivers. Cornwallis was now shut up in a trap. For several weeks the Americans pressed the siege and bombarded the British works. Escape by sea or land was impossible for Cornwallis, so he and his whole army, about eight thousand strong, surrendered to Washington on October 19, 1781. The fall of Yorktown virtually terminated the War of Independence.

300. The Scene of Surrender. A large crowd of citizens assembled to witness the imposing scene of surrender. The troops were drawn up in two columns extending more than a mile. On the one side were the French forces, headed by Rochambeau, on the other, Washington and his continentals. The vanquished army, with colors cased, slowly marched out between the ranks while the British military band played the quaint melody, "The World Upside Down." Cornwallis, feigning illness, did not appear, but sent his sword by General O'Hara. Washington directed the sword to be delivered to General Lincoln, who, eighteen months before, had surrendered

his to Clinton at Charleston. The defeated army was next led by Lincoln to an open field where they laid down their arms.

The tidings of this event, so vast in importance, reached Congress at midnight, four days afterwards. Every heart bounded with exultant delight as the watchman pacing the streets of Philadelphia cried aloud, "Past two o'clock and Cornwallis is taken!" The streets were soon thronged with happy men and women. The State House bell rang out its notes of gladness. To the English government the news came like a death blow, for the victory of Yorktown meant not only the independence of America, but also the overthrow of the arbitrary power of the king and his "friends" in England. The king was soon compelled to dismiss his Tory prime minister, Lord North, and call back to power those very Whigs who were friends of America. Among them were Fox, the younger Pitt, Barre, and Burke. The elder William Pitt, Lord Chatham, had died (May 11, 1778) in consequence of a stroke of apoplexy after an exciting speech in defense of the colonists and against the proceedings of the British ministers.

301. The Treaty of Peace. Though the surrender of Cornwallis practically ended the war, it was still nearly two years before peace was made. Many complicated questions delayed the treaty. The king was reluctant to grant independence; it was difficult to agree on the boundaries; Spain desired that the United States should be restricted to the Alleghany Mountains on the west; and the right to the Newfoundland fisheries was disputed. Meanwhile, Washington, with great skill and inflexible determination, managed to keep his greatly discontented forces together at Newburgh on the Hudson until final peace was made. At length the painful period of waiting came to an end. A treaty of peace (negotiated by Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, and John Adams), was finally signed with England by the United States, France, and Spain, at Paris, on September 3, 1783. By this treaty:

- (a) the United States was recognized as an independent nation ;
- (b) the boundaries fixed were the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence on the north, the Mississippi on the west, and Florida on the south ;
- (c) the United States was given equal rights with Great Britain to the Newfoundland fishing banks and to the navigation of the Mississippi and the Great Lakes.
- (d) Florida, then including parts of Alabama and Mississippi, was given to Spain. Spain continued to hold New Orleans and the Louisiana territory.

A provision of the treaty required Congress to request the state governments to repeal laws which had been made, confiscating the property of Tories and hindering the collection of private debts due the British merchants from the Americans. Congress made the request, but the states did not heed it. The Tories were so badly treated that about one hundred thousand left the country, those in the South going to Florida and the Bahamas, and those in the North, to Canada. Great Britain, seeing that the provisions of the treaty concerning the Tories and the collection of debts were not fulfilled, left small garrisons of troops at Ogdensburg, Oswego, Niagara, Erie, Sandusky, Detroit, and Mackinaw until the first of June, 1796.

302. The Armies Disband. Washington made a farewell address to his army at Newburgh and disbanded it on November 3, 1783. The British had evacuated Savannah (July 11) the previous year. On November 25 of the same year the British troops, then collected at New York under General Guy Carleton (who had succeeded General Clinton, 1782), embarked for home; while Washington, at the head of a large procession of citizens and soldiers, entered the city. The British evacuated Charleston (December 14) 1783. Washington met his assembled generals for the last time and bade them an affectionate farewell. "With a heart full of love and gratitude," he said, "I now take leave of you, most devoutly wishing that your latter days may be as prosperous and as happy as your

former ones have been glorious and honorable." He then formally resigned his commission as commander-in-chief to Congress (December 23) which was sitting at Annapolis, and went back, a private citizen, to his home at Mount Vernon, in Virginia, where he was followed by the gratitude of his fellow-countrymen.

REVIEW OF THE PRINCIPAL BATTLES OF THE REVOLUTION

DATE	Location	Commanders		Army Successful
		American	British	
1775.....	Lexington.....	Parker.....	Smith and Pitcairn.....	American
	Ticonderoga....	Allen.....	DeLaplace.....	American
	Bunker Hill....	Prescott.....	Howe and Clinton.....	British
1776.....	Quebec.....	Montgomery....	Clinton.....	British
	Fort Moultrie...	Moultrie.....	Clinton and Sir Peter Parker..	American
	Long Island....	Putnam.....	Howe and Clinton.....	British
	White Plains....	McDougall.....	Howe.....	British
1777.....	Ft. Washington..	Magaw.....	Howe.....	British
	Trenton.....	Washington.....	Rahl.....	American
	Princeton.....	Washington.....	Mawhood.....	American
	Ticonderoga....	St. Clair.....	Burgoyne.....	British
	Fort Schuyler...	Arnold.....	St. Leger.....	American
	Bennington.....	Stark.....	Baum.....	American
	Brandywine.....	Washington.....	Howe.....	British
	Stillwater.....	Gates.....	Burgoyne.....	American
1778.....	Fort Mercer.....	Col. Greene.....	Donop.....	American
	Monmouth.....	Washington.....	Clinton.....	American
	Wyoming.....	Zeb. Butler.....	John Butler....	British
	Rhode Island....	Sullivan.....	Pigot.....	American
1779.....	Savannah.....	Robt. Howe.....	Campbell.....	British
	Sunbury.....	Lane.....	Prevost.....	British
	Stony Point.....	Wayne.....	Johnson.....	American
1780.....	Paulus Hook.....	Lee.....	Sutherland.....	American
	Savannah.....	Lincoln.....	Prevost.....	British
	Monk's Corner...	Huger.....	Tarleton.....	British
	Charleston.....	Lincoln.....	Clinton.....	British
1781.....	King's Mountain	Campbell.....	Ferguson.....	American
	Cowpens.....	Morgan.....	Tarleton.....	American
	Guilford C. H....	Greene.....	Cornwallis.....	British
	Fort Griswold...	Ledyard.....	Arnold.....	British
	Eutaw Springs...	Greene.....	Stewart.....	Indecisive
	Yorktown.....	Washington DeGrasse Rochambeau..	Cornwallis.....	American

CHAPTER XV

THE CRITICAL PERIOD OF OUR HISTORY—1781-1789

THE ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION

303. Extent and Significance. The critical period of our history is that extending from the siege of Yorktown in 1781 to the adoption of the Constitution in 1789. The conditions and events leading to the framing and adoption of the Constitution will now be considered. The thirteen states having declared themselves independent of England, and having made this declaration good by bringing to a favorable outcome the war for independence, could now take a place among the nations of the world. Yet the new-born nation had many difficulties to overcome before it could rightfully claim this place, for, quoting the words later used by Calhoun, "The Declaration of Independence changed the colonies from provinces subject to Great Britain to states subject to nobody." The Articles of Confederation under which the colonies were governed from 1781 to 1789 did not constitute them a nation, but merely formed them into a league of states. The greatest problem remaining to be solved was, how to make permanent the blessings obtained by the recent long and bloody struggle.

304. Significance of the Articles of Confederation. The Articles of Confederation were the outcome of honest and repeated efforts on the part of the American colonies and states toward some definite plan of union. Their adoption was one of the most important events in our history. Superior to any plan of union hitherto attempted, the articles were truly a long stride toward a more perfect confederation. For without them, the thirteen states that had struggled together for independence might have formed thirteen independent governments.

The fact that the states agreed to even this loose bond of union bespoke a spirit of nationalism which led later to better results. Notwithstanding the importance of the articles from an historical standpoint, they were nevertheless not only defective but a failure; for, making no provisions for an executive to enforce the laws, or for a national court to settle disputes between the states, they left Congress powerless to enforce its laws except by war. Under the Articles of Confederation, furthermore, Congress could not raise revenue, and since it could not raise revenue it could not pay the interest on its debts, much less the debts themselves. Consequently the government had no credit. Nor could Congress regulate commerce: In fact, Congress could only recommend or advise, possessing only such powers as the states grudgingly gave it. The grave consequences resulting from the defects of the Articles of Confederation gradually led the people to realize that they must establish a stronger central government.

305. Disunion Among the States. During the war, the bond of a common cause had united the states. The war over, the old jealousies and conflicting interests returned. The smaller states, distrustful of the larger ones, feared that they would be swallowed up by them, while the more populous states thought that they would not have proper representation. They quarreled with each other about boundary lines, about commerce, about trade; and the same spirit which made them desire to be free from the mother country, made them distrust Congress and shrink from vesting it with necessary authority. As a consequence, universal distrust and discontent grew worse and worse. The thirteen states were fast drifting apart and becoming thirteen hostile nations, ready to draw the sword against one another.

It must not be thought, however, that the people were without government during this time. All the states adopted new constitutions (1775-1781) except Rhode Island and Connecticut, and these retained their liberal colonial charters. But these

constitutions adopted by the representatives of the people inhabiting the several states, created a complete government, separate and independent for each of the states. Most of the new state governments were only variations of the colonial forms which had been in existence for over a century.

306. Defects That Wrought a Cure. There were three main defects in the Confederation which soon proved so serious that they forced the people to realize the need of a stronger government. Thus it may be said that the defects wrought their own cure. These defects were:

- (a) Congress could not pay its debts;
- (b) it could not regulate trade; and
- (c) it lacked the authority to preserve order.

307. Drift Toward Monarchy Because Congress Cannot Pay Its Debts. Congress, as we have seen, having no power to levy taxes, could not pay its debts. The large sums borrowed from foreign nations were soon spent, while paper money was almost worthless. As a result, the unpaid, poverty-stricken soldiers with their families felt most keenly this deplorable financial weakness of the government. While the army was encamped at Newburgh on the Hudson, the so-called Newburgh Addresses were published anonymously, calling a meeting of officers to consider the best means to press their claims on the attention of Congress. They were written in inflammatory language, threatening, among other things, that the army would not disband on the conclusion of peace unless its grievances were in the meantime redressed. The army was on the verge of revolt, ready to take up arms against Congress. Washington, however, prevented this. They next set on foot a scheme to make him king, and thus establish a monarchy, the very form of government against which they had rebelled and from which they had fought so long to free themselves. Washington, of course, spurned their proposal and severely rebuked them for such folly. The soldiers not realizing the helplessness of Congress, considered themselves treated with injustice and ingrati-

tude. One of them, voicing the sentiment of the army, is said to have declared: "We begin to hate the country for its neglect of us and we have lost all confidence in Congress."

308. Commerce Suffers Because Congress Cannot Regulate Trade. Great Britain refused to make a commercial treaty with America, because it knew that any state might break a treaty; and since Congress could not enforce those provisions of the peace treaty which concerned the Tories and the collection of private debts, England, in retaliation, closed her West India ports against American merchants and imposed a high duty on American imports. Congress, having no power to regulate trade, could not strike back by laying duties on English goods. The retaliatory measures of the individual states were of little effect. As a consequence, American shipbuilding and foreign commerce were almost destroyed. Nor was our domestic trade in a less deplorable condition. The states by their navigation laws and high tariffs were actually making commercial war upon one another. No farmer could freely buy and sell outside of his own state. New York, for instance, taxed the products coming to its markets from Connecticut and New Jersey, while New Jersey levied a tax of some eighteen hundred dollars upon a lighthouse built by New York City at Sandy Hook. Similar troubles arose between other states. Under these conditions the United States was rapidly losing its standing abroad.

309. Difficulties Arising from the Fact That Congress Could Not Preserve Order. Congress not having the command of a single soldier, could not protect itself even from insult, and was driven from Philadelphia on one occasion by a band of mutinous soldiers; much less was Congress in a condition to protect the rights of citizens.

After the Revolution, our imports had to be paid for in specie. Our imports were so much more than our exports that the country was soon drained of its gold and silver. Owing to this scarcity of specie and the worthlessness of paper money,

the people found it impossible to pay their taxes and debts. Consequently, their lands, cattle, and products were taken for taxes and mortgages, while the debtors themselves were thrown into prison. The debtor class of almost every state sought means to free themselves from their debts. Some demanded the issue of paper money which, resting on no foundation save the credit of the state governments, was of little value. Others demanded the so-called Stay Laws, which were enactments to delay the collection of debts. Others again demanded Tender Laws, which permitted a debtor to offer goods, at certain rates, in discharge of his debts.

Shays' Rebellion was another outcome of the inability of Congress to preserve order. In western Massachusetts several hundred angry farmers rose in insurrection under Daniel Shays, a captain of the Revolutionary War. They sought to close the court houses and stop suits against debtors, and even tried to seize the arsenal at Springfield for the purpose of securing muskets and cannon. The rebellion was subdued after some months by a strong force of the state militia under General Lincoln.

These Massachusetts farmers were ordinarily law-abiding citizens, but could not live without buying and selling, nor could they buy and sell without markets and money. The country was suffering from want of uniform currency and of trade opportunities which the states should have given Congress power to provide.

310. The People Are Led to Accept a Stronger Central Government. All these and many other similar alarming experiences eventually led the people to realize that they must risk a stronger central government. Some of the nation's greatest men (foremost among them, Washington, Hamilton, Madison, and Franklin), were untiring in their efforts to show the people that a change was necessary. Washington, even during the war, strongly urged the states to give Congress more power. For a number of years he spoke and wrote to this effect and

proved himself as able a statesman as he had been a military leader. Next to Washington stood Alexander Hamilton with his famous letters and papers on the defects of the government and their remedy. James Madison of Virginia actively aided Washington and Hamilton in Congress, while Franklin, by letters from abroad and vigorous speeches, strove to educate the people toward the same end.

311. A National Land System Forms a Bond of Union Between the States. Seven of the thirteen original colonies claimed the country as far west as the Mississippi, whereas the remaining six states, having fixed western boundaries, could not claim any part of these western lands. The Northwest Territory, the stretch of country between the Ohio and the Great Lakes and between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi, won by Clark's conquest and the late peace treaty, was claimed, all or in part, by each of four states. Massachusetts and Connecticut claimed to extend west to the Mississippi by virtue of their charters. New York claimed all of the Northwest Territory on the ground of an agreement with the Iroquois Indians; while Virginia laid a double claim to the whole territory by reason of her charter and of Clark's conquest. These conflicting claims led to bitter disputes, in which Maryland took a leading part, refusing to ratify the Articles of Confederation until the claimants of the western territory should relinquish to the national government for the common good, all these claims.

After long and hot discussions, New York, taking the lead, finally yielded her claims. The remaining six states one by one followed her example. Connecticut, however, kept a tract of land along the southern shores of Lake Erie called the Western Reserve. The common possession of the Northwest Territory did much to hold the states together, and in securing national control Maryland had done the nation a great service.

312. The Ordinance of 1787. Now that the land cessions were made, many New England veterans desired to settle in the

present state of Ohio. The Congress of the Confederation, in one of its last and best acts, passed the famous Ordinance of 1787. This measure provided:

- (a) for the government of the Northwest Territory;
- (b) that the Territory be divided into not less than three nor more than five states (Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin);
- (c) that education be encouraged;
- (d) that there be religious freedom;
- (e) that slavery be forever prohibited—runaway slaves, however, to be returned to their masters.

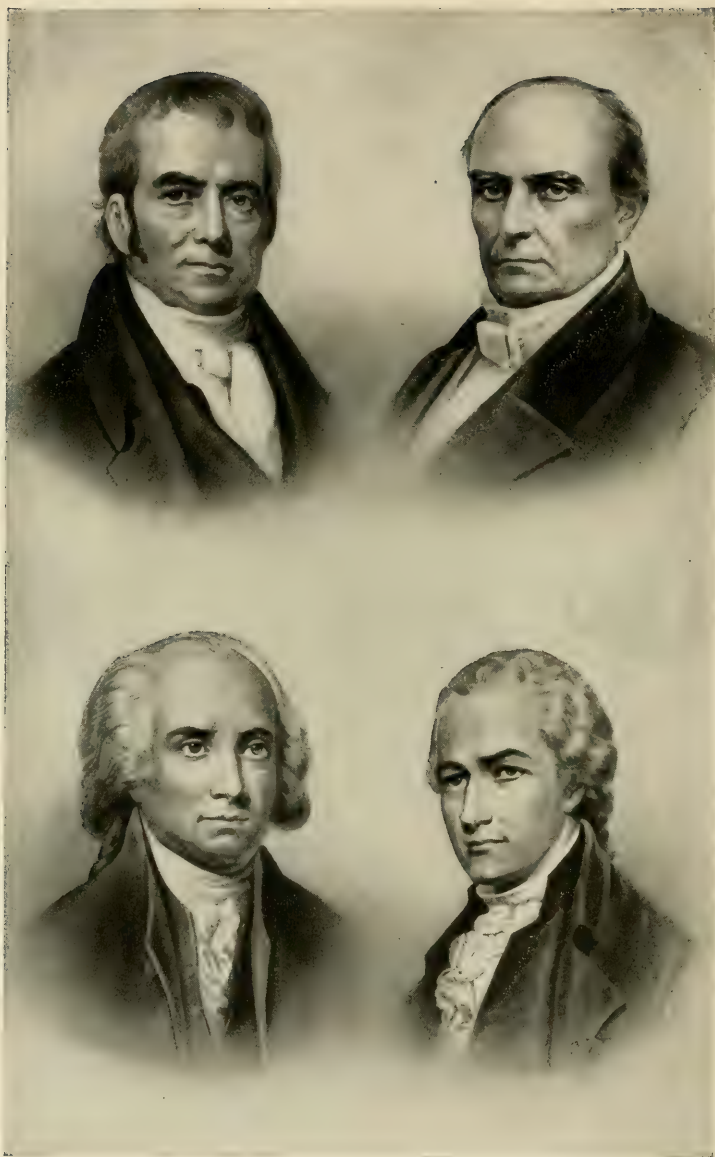
This Ordinance became a model for later organization of territories and is classed in importance with the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. In comment upon it, Webster says: "We are accustomed to praise the lawgivers of antiquity—but I doubt whether one single law from any law-giver, ancient or modern, has produced effects of more distinct, marked and lasting character than the Ordinance of 1787."

313. First Steps Toward a National Convention. Virginia and Maryland wished to come to some agreement concerning the use of Chesapeake Bay and the Potomac. Their delegates met for this purpose at Alexandria (1785) and wisely concluded that since the states trading with Virginia and Massachusetts would be affected by such a commercial treaty all the states ought to take part and help to frame some general laws for the regulation of trade. Therefore a circular letter was sent to all the states inviting them to join in a great trade convention to be held in the following year at Annapolis.

Delegates from only five states (Virginia, Delaware, Pennsylvania, New York, New Jersey) responded to the call. Nothing final could be accomplished because of the small representation and the limited powers of the delegates. It was clear also that even if all the states should agree on laws for regulating trade, such laws would be of no avail without a central authority to enforce them. So, before adjourning, the dele-

gates agreed on a resolution, framed by Alexander Hamilton, which proposed that Congress call a great national convention, to be held in Philadelphia, for the purpose of amending the Articles of Confederation. The people and the states still hesitated, but Shays' Rebellion in Massachusetts and the danger of similar uprisings in other states induced all the states, except Rhode Island, to appoint some of their ablest men as delegates to a great national convention.

314. The Convention Frames and Adopts the Constitution. The Convention met in Philadelphia (May 25). Fifty-five delegates attended, and Washington was unanimously chosen president. This, one of the most memorable of the world's assemblies, remained in secret session almost four months. As the Articles of Confederation were too defective to admit of successful revision, it was decided to frame an entirely new Constitution. This was a very bold resolve, since the states sent their delegates with the understanding that the Articles of Confederation were to be revised. Hence it was feared that the new Constitution would be rejected because the convention had no authority to set aside the Articles of Confederation except by the unanimous consent of the states. Nevertheless, a few of the Virginia delegates under the lead of Madison drew up a plan of government very much like our present Constitution. A South Carolina plan was later modeled after that of the Virginia delegates, with some original features, the most distinctive of which was the provision for a president who was to be called "His Excellency." The New Jersey plan was scarcely more than the revised Articles of Confederation. Hamilton offered a fourth plan, which provided that the chief executive hold office for life and have supreme executive authority. There were many stormy debates, but by judicious compromises, the Constitution of the United States was framed and adopted by the convention (September 17, 1787). Thirty-nine of the fifty-five delegates signed the Constitution. The other sixteen would not sign because they objected to certain



JOHN MARSHALL

JAMES MADISON

DANIEL WEBSTER

ALEXANDER HAMILTON

MAKERS AND INTERPRETERS OF THE CONSTITUTION

clauses which they believed interfered with the rights of the states.

The Constitutional Convention was composed of the most able and eminent statesmen and soldiers of the nation. Here were present Washington, the father and support of the nation; the venerable Franklin, the most aged member (over eighty), noted for his wisdom and experience; the scholarly Madison, the main author and defender of the Constitution; Oliver Ellsworth, later Chief Justice of the Supreme Court; the brilliant Hamilton, who, though one of the youngest members, was perhaps the greatest political thinker of the assembly. Jefferson and John Adams were both in Europe, the one serving as minister to France, the other to England. John Hancock, Samuel Adams, Patrick Henry, and Richard Henry Lee did not favor the Constitution, and hence absented themselves. Otis, insane from the effects of a wound received in the head during the non-tax controversies, had been killed (1783) by a stroke of lightning.

315. The Constitution a Series of Compromises. The Constitution being, as John Adams aptly said, "extorted from the grinding necessities of a reluctant people," was naturally a series of compromises, between the larger and the smaller states, between the Federalists and Anti-Federalists, and between the North and the South. It was chiefly on the basis of the following four compromises that the Constitution was adopted by the convention:

- (a) the small states were afraid of being overpowered by the larger ones. Hence the Connecticut compromise, which provided for equal representation in the Senate, was framed to satisfy the small states; while to pacify the large states, representation in the House of Representatives was to be proportioned to the population, and all bills of revenue were to arise in this House.
- (b) to please the South, five negroes were to be counted as equal to three white persons in determining the repre-

sentation; while to favor the North the same proportion of negro population was to be considered for direct taxation;

- (c) to please the South, the foreign slave trade was to continue without interference for twenty years (1808). No duties were ever to be paid on exports. To please the North, Congress should have power to regulate commerce by a majority vote, instead of a two-thirds vote;
- (d) to satisfy the Federalists, the President was vested with great power. He was entrusted with the enforcement of all laws and was made commander-in-chief of the army and navy. The Anti-Federalists were pacified by a provision in the Constitution for checking the authority of the chief executive in numerous ways, in case he should try to abuse his trust.

The dividing line between the authority of the central government and the several states was somewhat vaguely defined, this being such a sensitive point that if either side had insisted on expressing in words something more definite, no agreement could have been reached; and to the vague terms of this compromise may be traced many of the difficult problems of later history.

316. The Plan of the Constitution. According to the Constitution the government was divided into three departments:

- (a) the legislative, or law-making power, vested in Congress;
- (b) the judiciary, or law-interpreting power, vested in the Supreme Court and inferior courts;
- (c) the executive, or law-enforcing power, vested in a President, a Vice-president, and other officers.

Congress was to consist of two Houses, the House of Representatives, elected by the people, and the Senate, elected by the state legislatures.

317. The States Ratify the Constitution. Congress submitted the Constitution to the states for ratification. The people of

each state chose delegates to conventions which should accept or reject the new plan of government.

Great excitement and stirring discussions for and against the Constitution at once arose and divided the people into two parties. The friends of the Constitution, called Federalists, were led by Washington, Madison, and Hamilton. The opponents of the Constitution, called Anti-Federalists, were led by the brilliant statesmen Jefferson, Patrick Henry, Samuel Adams, and John Hancock. They were jealous of Congress, fearing that too much national power might lead to the establishment of a monarchy. These were our first political parties.

Within a year, however (before August, 1788), all the states, except Rhode Island and North Carolina, adopted the Constitution. These two states were treated as foreign nations, and therefore soon came to terms (1789-1790). Some of the states ratified the Constitution in the hope that amendments would be added, guaranteeing protection to the life, liberty, and property of the people, and securing them against the perils which beset them before the war.

The new Constitution when ratified by eleven states was presented to, and accepted by the Congress of the Confederation (September 20, 1788), then sitting in the City Hall in New York; it was furthermore ordered that the government under the new Constitution should go into effect March 4, 1789, in the city of New York; with this final act the Congress of the Confederation closed its last session and its members dispersed without the formality of an adjournment.

When nine states had ratified the Constitution (1788), the people knew that its adoption was secure. The event was celebrated by the suspension of business, the chiming of bells, jubilant processions, the booming of cannon, and the blazing of bonfires. The people of Philadelphia celebrated with especial enthusiasm this great event; for within their city the first Continental Congress had met (1774); independence was declared (1776); and the Constitutional Convention was held

(1787). New York City honored the occasion by a parade in which a ship on wheels, representing the "Ship of State," was drawn through the streets by ten white horses. The name of Alexander Hamilton, the State's great defender of the Constitution, was emblazoned in large letters on the platform upholding the ship.

318. The Constitution—Bill of Rights. The Constitution of the United States may be defined as a written document, explaining how our government is organized, and what powers the various parts have. The government under the Constitution was far stronger than the one it replaced. The national government was no longer to live by the grace of the states. It was supreme in all that concerned the nation at large. It had the sole power to coin money, regulate commerce, fix weights and measures, declare war and negotiate treaties with foreign nations; all its powers were specified in the Constitution. Still much power was left to the states. These had control over all their individual affairs and could exercise all powers of government not specifically forbidden in the Constitution. The purpose and provisions of the Constitution are set forth in its preamble. (See Appendix.)

As framed and adopted by the thirteen original states, it was the same as we still have it, with the exception of some amendments, seventeen in number (1914). The new Congress, organized after the adoption of the Constitution, submitted (1789) to the state legislatures twelve amendments, ten of which were ratified (1791) and added to the Constitution as the Bill of Rights. These amendments may be regarded as a part of the original Constitution.

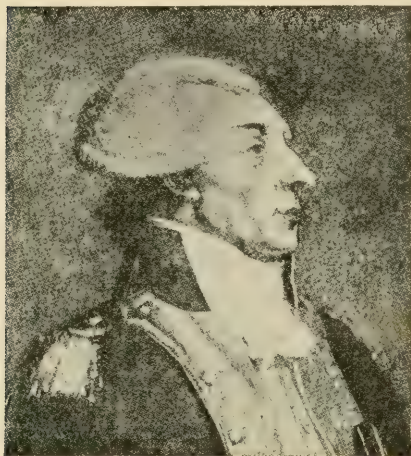
319. The Proceedings of the Constitutional Convention. Washington, in his official journal, kept an account of the proceedings of the convention. This he later placed in the public archives (1796). Little can be gathered from his journal with regard to what the members said in their stirring debates. In this regard James Madison, the Father of the Con-

stitution, did invaluable service for posterity. He attended every day, and took careful notes on the various discussions. These notes he wrote out at night. Madison's "Journal" was published and is our most important single volume of American history. "The Federalist," one of the best works ever written on the Constitution and the science of government, is a book in which are collected eighty-five essays, fifty of which were written by Hamilton, thirty by Madison, and five by Jay. These essays were originally circulated in the newspapers at the time when the states were considering the ratification of the Constitution. Our great statesmen of more recent times, such as Webster, Calhoun, and Clay, resorted to "The Federalist" for light on disputed points in the Constitution.

320. Patriotism Among Catholics. We have seen that the discovery and exploration of America and the subsequent christianizing and civilizing of the Indians were preëminently Catholic enterprises; also that the colonial times were dark and intolerant for Catholics. The opposition of the colonies to the Quebec Act proved plainly that the old anti-Catholic prejudices were still very much alive. During the war, however, the colonial Catholics, forgetting the many wrongs of the past, unanimously supported the patriot cause. Nor did they distinguish themselves only in the army and navy, but also in council halls and legislatures. In the day of trial the Catholic faith proved the grandeur of its principles. It produced no traitors, no oppressors of their country. After the American alliance with Catholic France, the law excluding Catholics from civil rights was repealed. With this event dawned a new era for Catholicity in America.

Among prominent Catholic leaders in the army may be mentioned: Stephen Moylan, the French Counts, Lafayette and Rochambeau, the noble Poles, Kosciusko and Pulaski, the German Barons, Steuben and De Kalb, and the Indian chief, Orono. Stephen Moylan occupied one after another, offices of trust in the American army and rounded out the full measure of his

service with General Greene in the southern campaign at the close of the war. William Paca, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, held numerous political offices in his own state, and was a member of



MARQUIS DE LAFAYETTE

the State convention which ratified the federal Constitution. Thomas Fitzsimmon was a member of the First Continental Congress, took part in the Trenton campaign, and was a member of the convention that framed the Constitution of the United States. Daniel Carroll of Maryland was the only other Catholic member.

Eminent Catholics in the navy were Captain John Barry and Jeremiah O'Brien. Catholics who fig-

ured prominently in Congress were the famous Charles and Daniel Carroll, William Paca, and Thomas Fitzsimmon. There was an entire Catholic regiment, sons of Ireland, in the Pennsylvania line. Washington's personal guard, the flower and choice of the army, was largely composed of Catholics.

At the close of the war a solemn "Te Deum" was chanted (November 4, 1781) in one of the Catholic churches in Philadelphia. Members of the United States Congress, Washington, Lafayette, and many of the distinguished generals and citizens attended.

The Catholics of the United States, in common with their fellow-citizens, hailed with joy the election of George Washington as first President under the new Constitution. Before the inauguration, Bishop Carroll, on behalf of the Catholic clergy, united with the representatives of the Catholic laity

(Charles Carroll of Carrollton, Daniel Carroll of Maryland, Dominic Lynch of New York, and Thomas Fitzsimmon of Pennsylvania) in an address of congratulation to the new President. The memorable and cordial reply of Washington "To the Roman Catholics of the United States" was as follows: "I hope ever to see America among the foremost nations in examples of justice and liberality; and I presume that your fellow-citizens will not forget the patriotic part which you took in the accomplishment of their Revolution, and the establishment of their government, or the important assistance they received from a nation in which the Roman Catholic faith is professed. . . . May the members of your Society in America, animated alone by the pure spirit of Christianity, and still conducting themselves as the faithful subjects of our free government, enjoy every temporal and spiritual felicity."

With the birth of the new nation, the ultimate outcome of a fourteen-year struggle for independence and nationality, we may fittingly close this eventful epoch with the following extract from the Pastoral Letter of the Fathers of the Third Plenary Council of Baltimore (December 7, 1884):

"We consider the establishment of our Country's independence, the shaping of its Liberties and Laws, as a work of special Providence; its framers 'building better than they knew,' the Almighty's Hand guiding them."

CHRONOLOGICAL REVIEW

1763-1776

George III is king of England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales, and of the English colonies in America.

Louis XV reigns in France.

George III. 1760-1820.

1765. The Stamp Act is passed (March 22).

The Stamp Act Congress meets in New York City (October).

1766. The Stamp Act is repealed (March 18).

1767. The Townshend Acts are passed (June).

1768. The British troops arrive in Boston (September).

1770. The Boston Massacre occurs (March).

The Townshend Acts, with the exception of a tax on tea, are repealed (April 12).

1771. The colonial forces are defeated in a pitched battle in North Carolina.

1772. The British vessel *Gaspee* is destroyed.

1773. The Boston Tea Party occurs (December 16).

1774. The "Five Intolerable Acts" are passed (March 31).

The First Continental Congress meets in Philadelphia (September 5).

1775. The War begins with Battle of Lexington; American victory over the British under Pitcairn (April 19).

Ethan Allen and Benedict Arnold capture Ticonderoga (May 10).

The Second Continental Congress assembles (May).

Washington is chosen commander-in-chief (June 15).

The Americans under Prescott suffer a "victorious" defeat from the British under Gage at Bunker Hill. General Warren is killed (June 17).

Washington takes command and organizes a continental army (July).

Montreal surrenders to Montgomery (November 13).
 Montgomery and Arnold are defeated before Quebec.
 Montgomery is killed (December 31).

1776. The Americans under Washington force the British under Howe to evacuate Boston (March 17).

Captain John Barry captures the British man-of-war *Edward* (April 7).

The British under Clinton are repulsed at Charleston by the American garrison, in command of Colonel Moultrie (June 28).

George III hires Hessians from Germany to fight against the colonies.

Declaration of Independence adopted July 4, 1776.

1776-1784

The Continental Congress and the various State governments rule in America.

George III is king of England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales.

Louis XVI reigns in France.

1776. The Americans under Sullivan are defeated by the British under Howe in the Battle of Long Island (August 27).

The Americans are defeated in the White Plains and Harlem skirmishes by the British under Howe (October).

The British commanded by Howe take Forts Washington and Lee on the Hudson (November).

Washington and his troops retreat through New Jersey (November and December).

The Americans commanded by Washington capture the Hessians under Rahl at Trenton (December 25).

1777. Morris raises money to save the army (January).

The Americans under Washington win battle at Princeton against the British under Howe (January 2).

Lafayette and companions arrive in America.

1777. Congress adopts the Stars and Stripes as the American flag (June 14).

Burgoyne captures Forts Ticonderoga, Crown Point, and Edward (July).

The Americans under Herkimer and Arnold defeat the British and Indians under St. Leger and the Mohawk chief Brandt in a bloody battle at Oriskany (August 2).

General Schuyler is superseded by General Gates (August 10).

The American under Gates win battle of Bennington against the British under Burgoyne (August 16).

The Americans under Washington are defeated by the British under Howe in the battle of Brandywine (September 11).

Congress leaves Philadelphia for York (September 19).

The Americans under Gates fight an indecisive battle against the British under Burgoyne at Bemis Heights (September).

The British take possession of Philadelphia and encamp there and at Germantown (September 25, 26).

The Americans under Washington are defeated by the British under Howe in a hard-fought battle at Germantown (October 4).

The Americans under Gates, led on by the bravery of Arnold and Morgan defeat the British under Burgoyne at Stillwater (October 7).

The Americans under Gates, again headed by Arnold and Morgan, defeat the British under Burgoyne at Saratoga and force them to surrender (October 17). The Continental Congress adopts the Articles of Confederation (November 15).

Washington goes into winter quarters at Valley Forge (December 11).

Conway forms a conspiracy against Washington.

1778. France acknowledges the independence of the United States and agrees to help her cause with money, ships, and men (February 6).

Baron Steuben helps Washington to discipline his army (May).

England offers to make peace by repealing her oppressive laws (June).

The British, hearing of the French alliance, leave Philadelphia for New York (June 18).

The Americans under Washington pursue the British under Clinton and attack them at Monmouth Court-house (June 28).

Washington encamps at White Plains, Clinton at New York.

The Tories and Iroquois, under Butler and Brandt, massacre the inhabitants of the Wyoming Valley (July 3).

A French fleet under D'Estaing arrives in America (July 29).

The Tories and Iroquois under Johnson and Brandt massacre inhabitants of Cherry Valley (November).

The British under General Prevost capture Savannah from the Americans under Lincoln (December 29).

Paul Jones, as captain of the *Ranger*, incessantly harasses British vessels.

1779. The Americans under General Wayne recapture Stony Point from the British (July 15).

The Americans under Lighthorse Harry Lee capture Paulus Hook.

The Americans under Sullivan completely overthrow the combined forces of Johnson, Butler, and Brandt at the present site of Elmira, New York (July).

George Rogers Clark finally captures Vincennes and thus wins the Northwest for the United States.

Paul Jones captures the British frigates *Serapis* and *Scarborough* off coast of Flamborough (September 23). The Americans under Lincoln, and the French under D'Estaing, attempting to recapture Savannah, are repulsed by the British. The brave Pulaski is killed (October 9).

1780. The Americans under Lincoln surrender at Charleston to the British under Clinton (May 12).

The first French army arrives at Newport, Rhode Island (July 10).

The Americans under Gates are defeated by the British under Cornwallis at Camden (August 16).

Arnold betrays his country and makes good his escape to the British army (September).

Major André is executed as a spy (October 2).

The western pioneers under Sevier and other militia captains defeat the British under Ferguson at King's Mountain (October 7).

Greene is put in command of the Southern army (December 2).

Patriot bands harass the British army in the South.

1781. A part of Washington's army revolts, but is persuaded to return to duty.

The Americans under Morgan defeat the British under Tarleton at Cowpens (January 17).

Greene retreats before Cornwallis (January and February).

The Articles of Confederation are ratified by Maryland, the thirteenth and last State to take this action, and the Continental Congress becomes the Congress of the Confederation (March 1).

The Americans under Greene are defeated by the British at Guilford Court House. The British, badly crippled, retreat to Wilmington (March 15).

The French and American armies watch New York (June and July).

A French fleet arrives in Chesapeake Bay (Aug. 30).

The Americans under Greene are defeated by the British under Rawdon at Eutaw Springs. The Carolinas and Georgia are practically recovered from British rule (September 8).

The combined American and French land and water forces begin the siege of Yorktown (September 28).

The British under Cornwallis surrender at Yorktown, Virginia (October 19).

1782. The British evacuate Savannah (July).

1783. Peace is signed with England by the United States, France, and Spain, at Paris (September 3).

The American army is disbanded (November 3).

The British evacuate New York (November 25).

The British evacuate Charleston (December 14).

Washington resigns his command to Congress (December 23).

1784-1789

1786. Shays' Rebellion occurs in Massachusetts.

1787. The Constitution of the United States is adopted by the Convention (September 17).

Congress passes the "Ordinance of 1787."

The Federalists and Anti-Federalists, our first two political parties, are formed.

1788. Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay, publish the "Federalist" in defense of the Constitution.

1789. The Congress of the Confederation, having accepted the Constitution, decides that it should go into effect March 4, 1789.

PERIOD OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE STATES TO THE CIVIL WAR

CHAPTER XVI

CONDITIONS OF THE NEW NATION

321. Extent and Significance. The period of the development of the States to the Civil War extends from the adoption of the Constitution in 1789 to the breaking out of the Civil War in 1861. The principal events included in this period are the great accessions of territory to the original United States, the increase of the number of states from thirteen to thirty-four, and the rapid progress of the country in population, wealth, and industrial achievements. Having seen how the Constitution was framed and adopted, we are now to learn how the new government was put into operation under this Constitution.

322. Area—Extent—Population. Before studying the next epoch of our history, let us dwell briefly on the general social conditions of the young nation about to begin its career under the new Constitution. We cannot expect to recount any immediate progress after the hardships and confusion of the war. The people stood still, as it were, in the face of the overwhelming recollections of the past and the political disturbances of the present. This condition, however, was soon to give way to an outburst of great national activity.

The United States in 1783 included an area of about eight hundred thousand square miles and was bounded on the north by the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence; on the east, by the Atlantic; and on the south and west, by Spanish territory. These boundaries were in dispute at points east and west of the Great Lakes.



In accordance with the Constitution, which provides that the census be taken every ten years, the first enumeration was made in 1790 and showed a population of nearly four millions, about one-fifth of which were negroes, mostly slaves, and one-fiftieth Indians. Only five per cent of the people lived west of the Alleghanies. Virginia was the most populous state; Pennsylvania ranked next; then followed in order North Carolina, Massachusetts, New York, Maryland, South Carolina, and Connecticut.

323. The West. Vermont was admitted as the fourteenth state in 1791, and Kentucky as the fifteenth, in 1792. The glowing accounts of Boone and other western pioneers attracted



AN EMIGRANT WAGON

many people to the beautiful and fertile region west of the mountains. The means of travel and communication were so slow, however, that Jefferson declared it would take a thousand years to fill up the region to the Mississippi River.

There were three main routes of travel to the western settlements:

- (1) the Ohio River was reached at Pittsburg by a route through Pennsylvania or by way of the Potomac and Monongahela rivers;

- (2) the Virginia valley settlers followed the Greenbrier River to the Great Kanawha, a branch of the Ohio;
- (3) the greatest number of the frontier settlers moved by way of the Cumberland Gap or Wilderness Road.

Great numbers of pack-horses and emigrant wagons were following the three common routes across the mountains. Pittsburgh especially, felt the impetus of the western movement, for, from this point, the pioneers with their families and belongings, could easily float down the Ohio on flatboats and build homes in what is now the state of Ohio. Notwithstanding the western trend of emigration, the great mass of people still clung to the seaboard, and the centers of population were along river courses and around good harbors.

324. Towns. There were no large cities in America at the close of the Revolution. Only five had a population exceeding ten thousand—Philadelphia, New York, Boston, Charleston, and Baltimore. The streets of most of the cities were narrow, and poorly paved, if paved at all. There were no sewers and sanitation received but little attention. All kinds of diseases prevailed; worst of all was the terrible yellow fever. Philadelphia, however, had lighted and paved streets and a drainage system and was the finest city in the United States. New York, though not equal to Philadelphia in improvements, was a pleasant residence city. Boston, the second or third according to population, was a crowded but thriving commercial town. Baltimore controlled the commerce of the Potomac and the Susquehanna Valley. Charleston, the typical southern city, controlled the rice trade, was the favorite residence center of the wealthy planters, and was celebrated for its gay social life.

325. Commerce. Owing to the fact that the old Confederation could not protect the commerce of the country, trade at this time was not very flourishing. But in spite of unfavorable conditions, American navigators were familiar with all seas and sailed to the West Indies, Europe, Asia, and even China and the northwest coast of America. New England

ship-owners loaded their vessels with beef, pork, fish, peltries, timber, and pitch at the various colonial ports, with grain and flour from the Middle States, with hogsheads of tobacco from Maryland and Virginia, or with rice and indigo from Carolina and Georgia. They then sailed away to foreign lands and returned with cargoes of sundry articles as sugar, coffee, tea, salt, nails, and distilled spirits. The value of the imports was slightly less than that of the exports.

326. Manufacturing. Manufacturing, except shipbuilding, was yet in its infancy. In shipbuilding New England ranked first and the South last. The manufacturing interests of New



PLOWING IN EARLY DAYS

England and Pennsylvania were, however, aided in their very beginning by the excellent facilities for this industry. Woolen cloth was the most important article of manufacture at this period. Some spinning mills were active in the New England States. There were a great many paper mills in Philadelphia and also iron works and glass factories. Saw and grist mills lined the banks of the swift-flowing streams. Blacksmiths' forges were erected along the roadside; leather was tanned and dressed, and barrels were coopered and packed with fish.

327. Agriculture. Agriculture was the chief industry, and probably nine-tenths of the people were engaged in farming.

It received less attention in New England than any other section on account of the nature of the soil and climate. The farmer made his own wooden plow, which was drawn by horses or oxen; he manufactured his own wagon; dropped his seed by hand; cut his grain with a scythe and threshed it with a flail, or had his cattle or horses tramp it out for him.

328. Travel and Communication. The means of travel and communication had changed but little since pre-Revolutionary times. Sailing vessels on the ocean, flatboats on the rivers, and the saddle-horse and stage coach for inland travel were still the chief means of transportation. More regular routes, however, had been established between the larger cities. The time required to traverse the distance from Boston to New York and thence on to Philadelphia, was from eight to ten days. Western farmers, finding trade slow and unprofitable in eastern markets, preferred to float their produce down the Ohio and the Mississippi to New Orleans. Here, however, the Spaniards charged a heavy duty. Not unfrequently Spanish officers seized both boat and cargo, and left the despoiled and angry owner to foot his long way home. When the irritated pioneers threatened to raise an army against the Spaniards, Spain, by treaty, granted the free use of the mouth of the Mississippi.

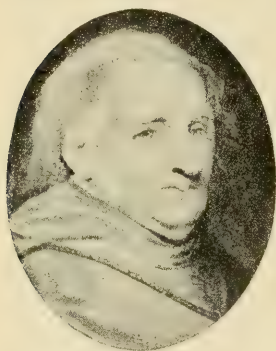
329. Social Life. A great change in American customs and ways of living had come about. We have seen that the war drove from the country thousands of Tories who were among the wealthiest and best educated people. Hundreds of other families were entirely broken up or reduced to poverty. Foreign fashions and habits of living were introduced in the large towns and replaced the plain ways of colonial times. The dwellings of the wealthy, though they had spacious rooms and rich furnishings, still lacked most of our modern comforts. Among the aristocratic classes there was much display in dress; and the styles of the English gentry were still in use. The men wore boots, knee-breeches, overcoats, and cloaks of costly

material; lace ruffles were worn about the wrists; the silver snuff-box and the metal-headed cane were indispensable companions. Wigs were going out of style. The women were attired in dresses of gay colored silks and velvets, over which were worn dainty white aprons, while quaint white cambric caps adorned their heads. The people living in the villages or engaged in farming had not, however, changed their simple manners. They still lived in their humble and rudely furnished log houses. They industriously raised their food on their own farms and wore homespun clothing. The spinning wheel was found in every home. Mrs. Washington is said to have kept sixteen spinning wheels running. Fireplaces were used in the majority of homes, but the stove invented by Franklin was fast coming into use. The houses were lighted by means of tallow candles, and a whale-oil lamp was a rare luxury.

330. Education. The cause of education had suffered greatly during the war. Schools were neglected. Many a student had become a soldier instead of a scholar. The country was impoverished and in consequence, school houses were sparingly furnished, and schoolbooks were few. Still in those times of rigorous discipline and persistent teaching of the "Three R's" there was much hard studying. On the whole, however, the literary talent of the United States had been improved by the Revolution. The eloquent speeches and learned writings of the great political leaders during the long years of controversy with England and the agitation over the Constitution, had stirred the people's thoughts and feelings and had called for hard thinking on many questions. One of the hopeful signs of the future of parochial and government schools was the article in the Constitution which granted freedom of conscience, as also the provision made by the old Congress in the Ordinance of 1787, that the schools of the Northwest should be encouraged. Noah Webster, a young schoolmaster, had just arranged a speller and was at work upon a dictionary (1783).

331. Religion. We have seen that the Revolution swept away many of the old religious prejudices. The majority of the people were in favor of religious freedom and the Constitution took away from Congress the power to establish any form of religion or to hinder freedom of worship. Still in some of the original states Catholicity for many years was obliged to struggle against bigotry. This, however, was gradually dying out.

After the "Peace of Paris," in 1783, Pope Pius VI erected the Episcopal See of Baltimore and consecrated as first Bishop



BISHOP CARROLL

From the Portrait by Gilbert Stuart in Georgetown University

of the United States, the learned and patriotic John Carroll, who had for some years administered the affairs of the American Church with the rank of Prefect Apostolic. His diocese embraced the whole United States; his flock, in the charge of some forty zealous pioneer priests, numbered about fifty thousand. It is interesting for Catholics to note the fact that, simultaneously with the election of President Washington as the civil executive of the young nation, Divine Providence provided the infant American

church with a spiritual executive in the person of the illustrious Right Reverend John Carroll. Franklin, Washington, and other leading builders of the Republic, highly esteemed Bishop Carroll for his saintly life and noble patriotism. The Holy Father, through Franklin, inquired of Congress in what manner the arrangement of a bishop for the United States could be made without interfering with the laws of the nation. In answer, Congress assured him that the United States had no jurisdiction over matters purely spiritual.

No sooner had the Abnaki Indians of Maine, the descendants of Father Rasle's loyal flock, heard that the Holy Father had

appointed a Bishop over the American Church, than they sent a delegation to ask the revered prelate for a priest. Bishop Carroll received them kindly, embraced Father Rasle's crucifix, which they carried with them, and promised to give them the desired "black gown." These Abnaki Indians, true to the faith to this day, have never been without a missionary since that time.

As the West had been first explored by the French, Catholicity had early gained a foothold there; and the French posts in the Mississippi valley were regularly attended by chaplains. After the Jesuits withdrew, however, the Rev. Father Gibault, vicar-general of that region under the Bishop of Quebec, was for many years the only priest in the territory of what is now Indiana and Illinois. The cross had also been planted on the Pacific coast. Shortly before the Declaration of Independence, the Spanish Franciscans, under Father Serra, founded the mission which afterwards became the city of San Francisco.

332. Literature, Art, and Science. American literature was still in its infancy, even though America had produced some noted writers. She had eminent scientists in Franklin and Benjamin Thompson; distinguished painters in West, Copley, and Stuart, and great statesmen and political writers in Dickinson, Jefferson, Hamilton, and Madison; still, of these, Franklin was the only one worthy of more than national fame. Newspapers had increased in numbers, but the people still had to depend largely upon letters for their news. The first Catholic work published in the United States was written by Father John Carroll. It was a worthy reply to an attack of an ex-Jesuit on the Catholic Church.

The godless writings of Godwin, Rousseau, Voltaire, and similar European authors had spread in the United States during the Revolution. Among infidel writers of our country may be mentioned Ethan Allen and Thomas Paine.

333. Anti-Slavery Spirit. At the close of the Revolution, slavery existed in nearly all the States. But many people now

began to think that if it was wrong for Englishmen to tax their colonies, it could hardly be right for Americans to buy and sell African strangers. They furthermore declared that the principles of Christianity and the Declaration of Independence endowed all men with equal rights to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." Emancipation acts which were eventually passed in many of the states abolished slavery north of Mason and Dixon's line. In the South, however, where slave labor was more profitable on the great plantations than on the small farms of the North, slavery had taken a firmer foothold. Even in the South, many people thought slavery injurious, and voted for the Ordinance of 1787, which forbade it.



WASHINGTON'S FAREWELL TO HIS MOTHER

CHAPTER XVII

GEORGE WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION

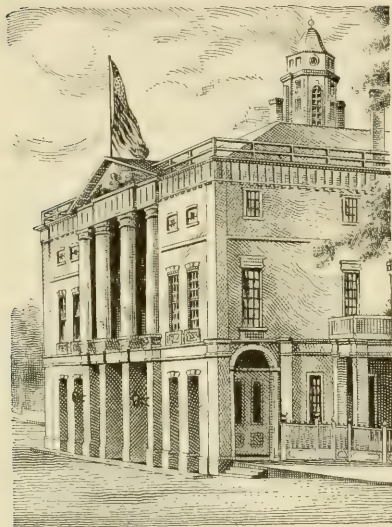
UNANIMOUS CHOICE—1789-1797

334. The First Presidential Election. In the early part of 1789, each state chose as many electors, or delegates, to vote for President and Vice-president as it had Senators and Representatives in Congress. Next the electors of each state voted for two men, one for the presidency, the other for the vice-presidency. According to the Constitution, the man receiving the majority of votes from the electors was to become the President, and the one receiving the next largest number, Vice-president. The votes cast were kept until counted by the new Congress.

On the fourth of March the new government was duly ushered in amid the ringing of bells, and the booming of cannon from the New York batteries. But the President could not be inaugurated on that date; for, owing to the slow means of travel and communication, the majority, or quorum of each house of Congress had not reached New York. Finally, by April 6, Congress was organized. The two houses assembled in joint session and chose Frederick A. Muhlenberg as Chairman. The count of the votes cast by the presidential electors showed that George Washington was unanimously chosen as President, and that John Adams had received the next highest number of votes, which made him Vice-president.

Washington, upon receiving notice of his election, reluctantly left the retirement of his home at Mount Vernon, bade a hurried adieu to his aged mother at Alexandria, and hastened to New York to assume the duties of his new office. His way thither was one triumphal progress. Old and young thronged the highways to welcome and bless him. At Trenton, the scene of his victory in the darkest hour of the war, he passed un-

der a triumphal arch, bearing these words: "The Defender of the Mothers will be the Protector of the Daughters." Here children came to meet him and to strew flowers at his feet. He took the oath of office, April 30, 1789, on the balcony of Federal Hall, New York City, in the presence of an immense throng of people. When the ceremony was over, Chancellor



FEDERAL HALL

Livingston, who had administered the oath of office, called out: "Long live Washington—President of the United States!" The cry was caught up and prolonged by the enthusiastic people, while the artillery boomed and the city bells rang forth their joyous peals. Washington then read his inaugural address in the Senate chamber in the presence of the assembled Congress. In it he made reference to a Supreme Being as the Ruler of the Universe, and controller of human actions and human destiny, whether individual or national. At the conclusion of the address, the assembly went to one of the city churches, where prayers were offered.

335. Our First Congress—Important Measures. When our first Congress opened its session, Vice-president Adams, who had entered upon his office April 21, 1789, presided over the Senate, and Frederick A. Muhlenberg of Pennsylvania was Speaker of the House of Representatives. Never was the business of a legislative body more important and more pressing than that of our first Congress.

Prominent measures which demanded immediate attention were:

- (a) the enactment of revenue taxes, or a tariff, to pay the public debt;
- (b) the creation of administrative, or executive departments;
- (c) the establishment of a Supreme Court, and Circuit and District Courts, or a judicial system;
- (d) the fixing of the salaries of the President and Congressmen;
- (e) the making of amendments to the Constitution (Bill of Rights); and
- (f) the location of the nation's capital.

336. Six Administrative Departments. Washington, with the consent of the Senate, appointed six able men to preside over the five administrative departments created by Congress, and over the Supreme Court:

- (1) Thomas Jefferson of Virginia, the famous author of the Declaration of Independence, was appointed Secretary of State; his chief duty was to attend to the foreign affairs of the government, but at first some home affairs also were under his control.
- (2) Alexander Hamilton of New York, probably the most brilliant statesman of our history, was appointed Secretary of the Treasury; his duty was to attend to the financial affairs of the country.
- (3) Henry Knox of Massachusetts, distinguished as a soldier during the Revolution, was appointed Secretary of War; his duty was to attend to the affairs of the army and navy.
- (4) Edmund Randolph of Virginia, famous in the Constitutional Convention, was appointed Attorney-General; his duty was to advise the government in legal matters.
- (5) Samuel Osgood, a general during the Revolution, was appointed Postmaster-General; his duty was to manage

the affairs of the post-office system established by the Continental Congress (1775).

- (6) John Jay of New York, noted for his sterling character and strong convictions, was appointed Chief Justice of the Supreme Court; his duty, in common with five associate justices, was to decide questions of law and justice brought before the Court.

Though the officers presiding over the respective departments mentioned above were appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate, they were removable by him without the action of the Senate.

337. The President's Cabinet. Although not provided for by the Constitution, the first Congress passed an act authorizing the President to select a body of advisers to be called the Cabinet. While the President is not obliged in the smallest degree to follow the advice of the Cabinet members, or even to ask it, their views have usually great weight with him. The illustrious officers of the first four administrative departments—Jefferson, Hamilton, Knox, and Randolph—composed Washington's Cabinet or advisory body. Taken as a whole, this Cabinet has probably never been excelled in ability. The members were well known on both sides of the Atlantic, and possessed the confidence of the people. Though they did not all agree with Washington on all political matters, each one revered him, and, like him, was ready to do what was in his power to promote the welfare and prosperity of the country.

The government was now organized. Congress, the law-making department, enacted the laws; the President at the head of the executive department, enforced the laws; and the Chief Justice, with his associates, constituting the judicial department, interpreted the laws when their meaning was disputed.

338. Hamilton's Financial Plan. The money question was evidently the most pressing. Hamilton's report showed that the national indebtedness—foreign and domestic—amounted to the enormous sum of about fifty-five million dollars. Ameri-

can credit was dead; but the young, ingenious Secretary of the Treasury worked out a plan for a general financial system, which tended to revive credit and strengthen the authority of the Union. He proposed:

- (a) that the government levy taxes for the two-fold purpose of paying its running expenses and debts, and of protecting American industries;
- (b) that an internal, or direct tax be imposed on alcoholic liquors;
- (c) that the government pay in full both its foreign and domestic debts;
- (d) that it assume and pay the debts of the separate states;
- (e) that it establish a great national bank.

Hamilton, although only thirty-two years old, had acquired a notable reputation as a writer on problems of government and as a lawyer. As a financier he probably has had no equal in America. Daniel Webster afterwards said of him: "He touched the dead corpse of the public credit and it sprang to its feet."

Hamilton, knowing the people's aversion to a direct tax suggested the tariff revenue. This provided for the taxation of imported goods, but as the impost was to be included in the selling price of the articles, the buyers would not realize that they were paying a direct tax. The money thus obtained was to be used to meet the expenses of the government.

As the manufacturing states wanted protection for their industries, a protective revenue tariff act was introduced by Madison into the House of Representatives and signed by Washington after his inauguration (July 4, 1789). The purpose of this tariff was to obtain revenue and to protect native industries. It was adjusted in such a way as to admit free the products the United States did not produce and to tax those of other nations that the country did produce. The funds thus obtained proved insufficient, and the tariff was twice slightly increased at Hamilton's suggestion. The Tonnage Act, intended for the

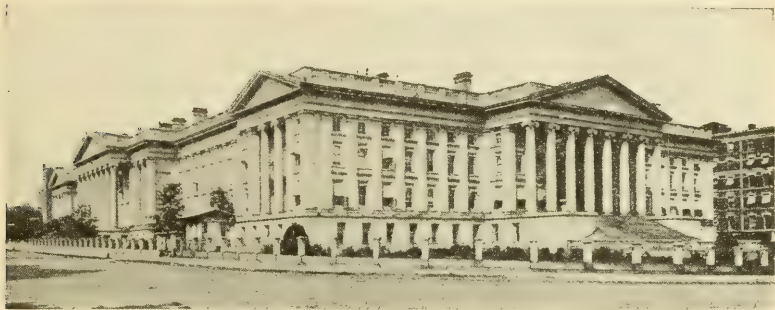
encouragement and protection of American shipping, provided that goods imported in foreign vessels be taxed more heavily than those imported in American ships.

In a short time these revenue acts yielded an annual income of about three and a half million dollars. Thus the government obtained money enough to pay its running expenses and the interest on its debts.

Departing from his policy of refraining from irritating the people by direct taxes, Hamilton suggested a small tax on alcoholic liquors. Congress imposed the tax. The people of the Alleghany region and western Pennsylvania, who carried their grain to the market in the shape of whiskey, could not see why they should be taxed more than the people east of the mountains, who carried their grain to the market simply as grain; hence they were inclined to regard the tax in the same light as the stamp duties before the Revolution. An insurrection, known as the Whiskey Rebellion, followed. As the governor of Pennsylvania was unable to suppress it, Washington called for fifteen thousand troops (1794). Their appearance sufficed to subdue the rebellion. This event proved that the United States had the power to impose a direct tax upon its own citizens as well as upon foreign goods—a long stride forward; the colonies had resisted taxation by England, and now the states acknowledged the right of taxation by a central power, and understood that the government was strong enough to enforce its laws in an unruly state.

There was no opposition to Hamilton's plan of paying foreign debts, but a heated debate took place in Congress as to the payment of the domestic debt. Finally, Hamilton's plan triumphed, and a bill providing for the payment of both foreign and domestic debts was passed. As a result paper currency, certificates, or promises of the government, instantly began to rise in value, and in December, 1791, were quoted at par (equal to face value). The credit of the United States was re-established.

The fourth part of Hamilton's scheme, that the national government assume the unpaid debts of the states incurred in support of the Revolution, met with strong opposition, especially from states like Virginia, which had cancelled the greater part of their own debt or perhaps had raised money for war by levying taxes instead of borrowing it. The measure was therefore defeated for the time. The undaunted Hamilton saw, however, an opportunity to save his plan in the dispute over the permanent location of the national capital.



THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT TODAY

While both the North and the South wanted the capital, the choice had narrowed to two eastern locations—one on the Delaware (North), the other on the Potomac (South).

Hamilton agreed that he would favor the location of the capital on the Potomac River in case Jefferson would favor his plan for the assuming of the state debts. A compromise was therefore made. Hamilton secured enough northern votes for the Potomac site, while Jefferson got a sufficient number of Virginians to carry the assumption of the state debts (\$21,500,000). Philadelphia was to remain the capital for ten years, when the seat of government was to be removed to some spot on the Potomac selected by Washington; the state debts were also to be taken up in due time. It was largely owing to the

revolt of the Pennsylvania troops during the war that the framers of the Constitution inserted a provision which gave the federal government complete control over a district ten miles square, within which a national capitol and other public buildings might be erected. The capitol was built on that part of the land which had been transferred to the government by Daniel Carroll.

Having re-organized the nation's finance, Hamilton now proposed the establishment of a national bank which the government should partly direct and in which it should hold shares, on the principles:

- (a) that such bank would become the means of giving a safe and uniform currency to the country through the issue of bank notes;
- (b) that the government would be enabled to borrow money and transact its financial affairs with less difficulty;
- (c) that the men who might become stockholders would become interested in the government.

After strenuous opposition, the bill passed both houses and was signed by the President. The bank's capital was soon subscribed and this institution immediately entered upon a prosperous and useful career. It was chartered for twenty years and handled nearly all the government money. As the Constitution forbade the states to coin money, Congress passed an act for the establishment of a United States mint at Philadelphia. To this mint anyone might take gold or silver and have it made into coins free of charge. The ratio of fifteen to one was adopted; that is, the weight of pure silver in a silver dollar was fifteen times as much as that of pure gold in a gold dollar. With the opening of the mint began also our simple and convenient decimal system of coinage—"ten cents make a dime, ten dimes a dollar."

339. The Bank Bill and the Cabinet—Political Parties. Washington, before signing the bill providing for a United States bank, referred it to the members of his Cabinet and asked

their written opinions on its constitutionality. The replies of Hamilton and Jefferson are worthy of note:

- (a) Jefferson held that the Constitution made no provision for the establishment of such a bank and that hence Congress did not have the power to establish it. He based his opinion on the literal interpretation of the Constitution;
- (b) Hamilton argued that the creation of a bank was constitutional, since it was related to the power of collecting taxes and borrowing money. He based his argument on a clause of the Constitution which gives Congress the right "to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution . . . the powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States." (Article I, Sec. 8, Clause 18.)

Subsequently, the national bank act gave rise to two political parties:

- (a) the Hamiltonians, favoring a loose construction of the Constitution for the sake of strengthening the federal government, were properly called Federalists; they resided chiefly in the commercial states;
- (b) the Jeffersonians, favoring a strict construction of the Constitution for the sake of making the states, rather than the federal government, the stronger power, were called Republicans, a name which implied that they were the only true friends of the republican form of government. The Republicans were most numerous in the agricultural states.

The Federalists were strongest in the North and held that the government should be for the most part in the hands of the so-called upper classes; that is, in the hands of the educated, and of the wealthy merchants and capitalists. The Republicans were strongest in the South, and they held that the masses of the people should control governmental affairs. They were called Democrats by the Hamiltonians, and hence

gradually became known as Democratic-Republicans. Hamilton had no faith in the ability of the masses of the people to govern, whereas Jefferson had confidence in the common people and in their ability for self-government. He held that if the affairs of the government should go wrong, "the good sense of the people would be the best army." To him, therefore, we are greatly indebted for the bringing into existence of a party whose leading policy was faith in the people.

340. Re-election of Washington and Adams. The two secretaries, Hamilton and Jefferson, naturally opposed each other in the Cabinet, as Jefferson said, "like two cocks in a pit." The controversy passed through the newspapers. Washington, who had hard work in forcing them to work together, had become weary of the attacks on his administration and would gladly have retired to Mount Vernon at the end of his first term, but both Jefferson and Hamilton, voicing the sentiments of the two parties which they represented, urged him to stand for a second election. Yielding his own wishes to those of the people, he was for a second time elected by the unanimous vote of the electoral college. John Adams, the Federalist candidate, was also re-elected Vice-president.

341. Westward Movement. Shortly after the passage of the Ordinance of 1787, Congress sold five million acres of north-western lands to individuals and companies. While the country was discussing Hamilton's financial measures, thousands of people from the eastern states were emigrating to the Northwest Territory, of which General St. Clair became the first governor. Before long the cities of Marietta (1788) and Cincinnati (1790) were founded on the Ohio, and the territory of Ohio was admitted (1802) into the Union as the seventeenth state—the first of the magnificent group of states formed from the Northwest Territory.

But these settlements were not made without great loss of life. The Indians bitterly resented the invasion of their hunting grounds, and encouraged by the British, who still held

Detroit, they resolved to drive out or kill the settlers. After four years of warfare, the savages under their chief, Little Turtle, were defeated in a final battle near Vincennes (1794) by "Mad Anthony" Wayne the hero of Stony Point. He so laid waste their country that they were glad to make a treaty of peace and give up most of the Ohio country to the whites. For fifteen years after this treaty, peace reigned and settlers continued crowding into the Northwest Territory.



CINCINNATI IN 1819

342. War in France—The United States Remains Neutral. During most of Washington's administration a terrible revolution was going on in France. The people overthrew the monarchy (1792), beheaded the king, Louis XVI, and the queen, Marie Antoinette, abolished all titles, and set up a republic. France declared war against England and sent "Citizen" Genet as minister to America to get help. A difficult problem now faced Washington and his cabinet, for they knew that to aid France meant war with England. Had not France been the first and warmest friend of American freedom? Was not Eng-

land America's old enemy? These were questions of great importance, made all the more so by the fact that this was the first administration, and succeeding ones would very likely follow its example. The Cabinet wisely decided to maintain neutrality (April 22, 1793). This was the beginning of our wise policy of not interfering in the affairs of European nations.

343. Genet's Indiscretion. This attitude of the United States was anything but what France had expected. Genet landed at Charleston, South Carolina, and thinking the United States in sympathy with his country, began to enlist men, to fit out ships for the French service, and to do other unlawful acts. Even after being requested by Secretary Jefferson to stop such proceedings, he continued to fit out vessels as privateers to prey on English commerce, and committed other violations of neutrality. He went so far as to try to stir up the people against Washington and the government. The people, however, resented such an insult to the government, and Washington demanded the recall of Genet. Genet was recalled, but rather than run the risk of returning to France, preferred to remain in the state of New York, where he engaged in farming until his death (1834).

The Democratic-Republicans, though not permitted to help France, showed their sympathy with that country; they even wore French colors and called each other "citizen" or "citizeness," instead of "mister" or "your honor," in imitation of the French Revolutionists who had abolished all titles. French dress, customs, and manners came into use, and French victories were even made the occasion of civic celebrations.

Owing to the closing of the mouth of the Mississippi by Spain and the seeming indifference of the United States government concerning this grievance, the people of the West had grown somewhat discontented. Genet, after the proclamation of neutrality, had received secret orders from the French government to take advantage of this condition of affairs and to enlist men to conquer Louisiana, Florida, and Canada for

France. Plans to this effect had already been set on foot at Charleston and Philadelphia when the minister was recalled.

344. Political Parties. So far the political parties had been composed of little more than personal followings. The mighty movements in Europe now drew the dividing lines more clearly :

- (a) the Federalists, or "Loose Constructionists" strongly opposed the giving of any aid to France. They leaned toward England because they wished English trade, and because they feared the spread of anarchical principles in America ;
- (b) the Democratic-Republicans, or "Strict Constructionists," were inclined to aid France by war or by indirect help—such as we had received at the beginning of the Revolutionary War.

345. Trouble with England. Our relations with England were no better than those with France.

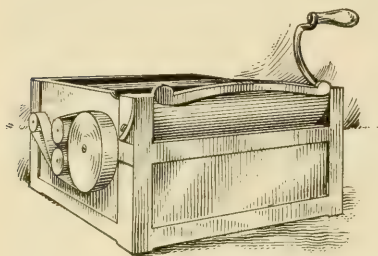
- (a) England claimed the right to seize all kinds of provisions carried to French ports in our ships on the doubtful claim that "provisions are contraband of war."
- (b) England impressed our seamen. Her sailors, abandoning their country's navy, often obtained employment on American vessels, and refused to return when called upon to fight in the cause of their own country. Hence, Great Britain arrogantly stopped American ships to search them for seamen of British birth, in order to impress them in her navy. Often naturalized Americans, and even sailors born in the United States, were seized.
- (c) England still refused to give up the western posts and encouraged the Indians to make war upon our settlers in the West.

346. The Embargo—Jay's Treaty. Public feeling rose in this country until a temporary embargo (1794) forbade vessels to depart from American ports. The clamor for war became loud. Washington tried to avert it and appointed John Jay, then Chief Justice of the United States, as special envoy to England

to make a last effort to adjust matters. After four months of negotiations, a treaty was drawn up which was finally ratified by Congress with the exact number of votes necessary to make the required two-thirds, though not without long and fierce debates.

Washington signed the bill merely because it was a choice between the treaty and a war. The terms of the treaty

were doubtless the best that could be secured at that time. Certain war, which would have crippled the nation, was averted. Once in force, the treaty was found moderately favorable to American interests. Our commerce increased and the capture of vessels at sea was fewer.



ELI WHITNEY'S COTTON GIN

347. Treaties with Spain and Algiers. Thomas Pinckney negotiated our first treaty with Spain (1795) by which that power permitted for ten years the use of New Orleans as a "place of deposit" for the free storage of goods to be transhipped, and fixed the thirty-first degree of latitude as the boundary of Florida.

A treaty was also made with the pirate government of Algiers (1795) by which the American seamen who were held as captives were ransomed, and American shipping on the ocean and on the Mediterranean was to be left unmolested.

348. The Spinning Mill—The Cotton Gin. Samuel Slater had, as a boy, spent seven years in the cotton mills of England. On coming to the United States he constructed from memory the necessary machinery and set up (1790) a cotton spinning mill at Pawtucket, Rhode Island.

Cotton thus far had been grown in small quantities only, owing to the difficulty of separating the seed from the fiber, which had to be done by hand. In 1793, however, Eli Whitney,

a Connecticut schoolmaster then residing in Georgia, invented a contrivance by which the cotton fiber was drawn by saw teeth through openings, too small to admit the passage of the seed.

By this invention, called the cotton gin, the working capacity of one slave in cleaning cotton was multiplied about three hundred-fold.

The invention of the cotton gin

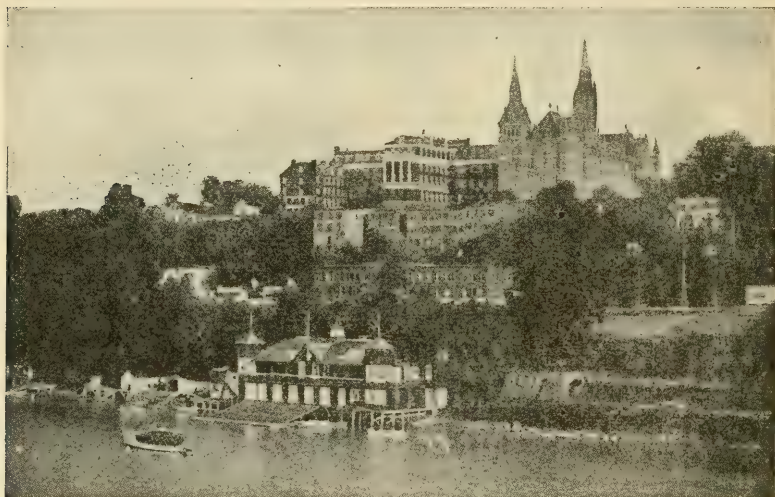
- (a) stimulated the production of cotton and greatly increased the wealth of the country;
- (b) increased our exports enormously and eventually revolutionized the commerce of the world;
- (c) encouraged the building of a great number of cotton mills in New England;
- (d) fixed slavery on the nation—a great evil which soon divided the country into two hostile sections and finally brought about the Civil War, the most terrible conflict in the history of the United States.

The manufacture of cotton goods in the United States had made but slight progress until Francis Lowell of Boston, who had visited England and there studied the machinery and methods of the cotton manufacturers, built a small factory near Boston, in which he began both the spinning and weaving of cotton (1813). From this time on factories multiplied and the industry grew very rapidly.

349. Catholic Education—New Laborers in the Vineyard. Bishop Carroll, who was greatly interested in Catholic education, founded Georgetown College (1787), with the Jesuits in charge. He also organized a theological seminary in Baltimore and placed it in care of Sulpicians from Paris. Carmelite nuns (1790) established themselves at Port Tobacco, Maryland, and later at Baltimore, where they opened a school.

To escape the horrors of the revolution raging in France, twenty-three French priests sought refuge in the United States (1791-1799). Bishop Carroll gladly welcomed them and they

were soon zealously engaged in mission work in Kentucky and elsewhere. Six of these priests later became bishops. The Catholic Church in the United States is deeply indebted to the zeal of these exiled French priests for their unwearied efforts in the interests of religion. The first priest ordained in the United States was Rev. Stephen Badin, another French exile. He received holy orders in Baltimore and (1793) became a missionary in the West. The second priest ordained in the United States (1795) was the illustrious Russian Prince, Deme-



GEORGETOWN UNIVERSITY

trius Gallitzin, fittingly termed the "Apostle of the Alleghanies." He sacrificed a distinguished position and a large fortune to become a missionary in western Pennsylvania. Father Gallitzin founded the Catholic colony at Loretto, distributed lands to the settlers, and spent thousands of dollars in charitable enterprises.

350. Other Events. Early in the session of the first Congress, twelve amendments to the Constitution were adopted by Con-

gress. Ten of these were ratified and added to the Constitution (1791). These amendments were appropriately termed the "Bill of Rights." Among other things they prohibited Congress from interfering with freedom of religious worship, of speech, and of the press.

Washington again, as during the war, did not desire any pay for his services. Congress decided, however, that the salary of the President should be twenty-five thousand dollars a year. Six dollars a day were allowed to a Congressman.

Captain Gray of Boston sailed (1790) around Cape Horn, thence up the Pacific along the Oregon coast and discovered the mouth of a great river which he entered and named the Columbia in honor of his ship. He then crossed the Pacific to China and from there he proceeded around the Cape of Good Hope and across the Atlantic to Boston. The American flag for the first time had been carried around the world.

Three states were admitted into the Union: Vermont, originally claimed by both New York and New Hampshire, entered (1791) as the fourteenth state, without slavery; Kentucky came in (1792) as the fifteenth state, with slavery; Tennessee was admitted (1796), with the consent of North Carolina, as the sixteenth state, with slavery.

The first fugitive slave law enacted by Congress (1793) gave the owner of a fugitive slave the right to seize him in whatever part of the United States he might be found. Upon proof that the person was a fugitive slave, he was to be returned to the owner. Any one hindering his return was to be fined five hundred dollars.

Washington, who had been twice unanimously chosen President, declined to be a candidate for re-election. He announced his determination in an affecting farewell address, published in a Philadelphia paper. His eight years of administration had been, if possible, even a greater service to his country than his eight years' command of its armies. He now retired to spend the evening of his life at his Mount Vernon home on the

Potomac. Throughout the country he was hailed by the grateful and affectionate people, not as "President of the United States," but as "Father of his Country."

His farewell address, so full of patriotic wisdom, has become one of the political classics of the world. In it Washington pleaded for national unity, obedience to law, religion, and morality, warned the country against the danger of party spirit, and bade it observe good faith and justice toward all nations. "Of all the dispositions and habits," said he, "which lead to political prosperity, religion and morality are indispensable supports."



WASHINGTON'S COAT OF ARMS

CHAPTER XVIII

JOHN ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION

FEDERALIST—1797—1801

351. Adams and Jefferson Are Elected. After Washington had made his farewell address, some months before the expiration of his second term of office, the selection of a successor became a party question. Each party chose a candidate—the Federalists, John Adams of Massachusetts—the Democratic-Republicans, Thomas Jefferson of Virginia. After an active campaign the contest resulted in the election of Adams to the presidency, while Jefferson became Vice-president. The inconvenience of party difference between the President and Vice-president led, a few years later, to a change in the mode of election—a distinct ballot being taken for the Vice-president, who has ever since been of the same party with his chief.

Adams (1735-1826) became President by a vote of seventy-one and Jefferson Vice-president by a vote of sixty-eight—a difference of three electoral votes. Adams made the mistake of retaining Washington's cabinet, which, under the control of Hamilton (Adams's enemy) was not loyal to him. Adding to this circumstance the fact that Adams and Jefferson were leaders of opposite parties, we can readily realize that the administration began with divided councils and with jealousy in the President's official household. As a result the country was disturbed by a violent conflict of opinions.

352. New Trouble with France. Our trouble with France was not at an end with the recall of Genet during Washington's administration. The Jay treaty was considered by France as an insult, partly because it was favorable to her rival, partly

because it removed the prospect of war between England and the United States.

James Monroe had been appointed by Washington as minister to France (1794). Being violently opposed to Great Britain and greatly in sympathy with France he acted very indiscreetly, and was censured by Randolph, the Secretary of State, and finally recalled by Washington. Charles C. Pinckney was then appointed as his successor. This recall gave great offense to France.

French cruisers now began openly to attack our merchant vessels. The French minister to our country was recalled, while our minister to France, Charles C. Pinckney, was not only refused a hearing, but even ordered to leave the country. Pinckney immediately went to Holland to await further instructions.

353. The X, Y, Z Mission. France had now set up a Revolutionary government, vested in five persons, called a Directory. Adams, indignant at the treatment which our minister had received, boldly denounced the conduct of France. He called an extra session of Congress and, considering the country too weak for war, finally sent John Marshall and Elbridge Gerry to join Pinckney in a final attempt to settle matters peaceably. These envoys, on reaching Paris, were denied an official interview, but three persons acting as agents visited them privately and declared that the American envoys could be received only under three conditions: The United States

- (a) should first apologize for Adams's denunciation of the conduct of France;
- (b) should pay each Director the sum of fifty thousand dollars; and
- (c) should pay tribute under the name of a loan to the French government.

The envoys refused to give any money to the Directors and treated the proposition to purchase a treaty by bribery with utter contempt. Pinckney exclaimed: "Millions for defense; not a cent for tribute." The results were made known in a

dispatch to the President. When Adams made his report to Congress he called the three agents, Mr. X, Mr. Y, and Mr. Z; hence the incident became known as the "X, Y, Z affair." When the particulars of this incident became public through the newspapers, a wild cry of indignation against France went up from both the Federalists and the Republicans throughout the country. "Millions for defense; not a cent for tribute," "War with France!" resounded on every side, while the stirring words of "Hail, Columbia," composed by Joseph Hopkinson, gave fitting expression to the patriotic spirit of the people.

354. On the Verge of War with France. President Adams considering negotiations with France at an end, declared: "I will never send another minister to France without the assurance that he will be received, respected, and honored as the representative of a great, free, and powerful nation." War measures were now quickly passed in both Houses of Congress. A provisional army was raised and Washington was appointed commander-in-chief of the American forces. New vessels were added to the navy and the Navy Department was organized. Naval hostilities between the two nations were actually begun. The American *Constellation*, under Captain Truxtun, captured the French frigate *Insurgent* after a hard fight. So vigorous a warfare did our little navy wage, that the French Directory at once declared its willingness to receive an envoy from the United States. Adams, anxious to avoid war, sent a commission, which concluded a treaty (1800) with Napoleon, who had now attained power in France. Adams consulted neither his Cabinet nor the leaders of his party when sending the envoys to France. Both took great offense at the action of the President, and a split in the Federalist party was the result. This action was one of the causes of Adam's failure of re-election, but it effected a peace with France which has not been broken for a century. Adams later said, regarding this treaty, that he desired no other epitaph than: "Here lies John Adams, who took upon himself the responsibility of peace with France."

355. Three Acts Aimed at Foreigners. While foreign affairs were demanding attention, party spirit continued to grow more bitter. The newspapers showed an extraordinary spirit of violence in their denunciations of the President and the government. Many of the journalists at that time were foreigners. To the excited imagination of the Federalists, who were represented by a majority in both Houses of Congress, these men leagued with France in an attempt to destroy the liberties of the country. To get rid of the most violent of these writers and at the same time to punish American-born editors who too freely criticized the administration, Congress passed three laws:

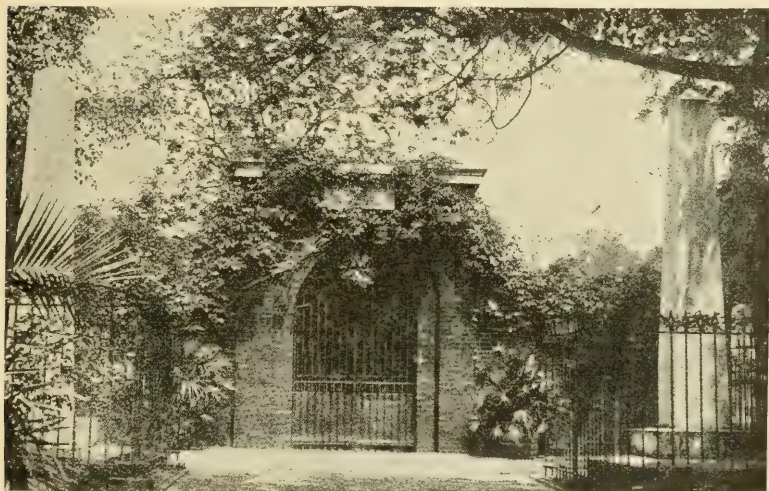
- (a) the Naturalization Act, which increased the time of residence necessary to become a citizen from five to fourteen years;
- (b) the Alien Act, which authorized the President to expel from the United States, without a trial of any sort, all aliens whom he should deem dangerous to the peace and safety of the country;
- (c) the Sedition Act, which provided for the punishment by fine and imprisonment of any person who, by writing or speaking, should bring the government into disrepute.

Adams never made use of the Alien Law, which was in force only two years. But the Sedition Law, in use less than three years, was enforced in several cases, and editors were fined and sometimes imprisoned.

The Alien and Sedition Acts were merely party acts passed for party purposes. They did not accomplish the purposes intended and they did the Federalist party irreparable harm. These measures were evidently in violation of the first amendment of the Constitution, which forbids Congress to make any laws abridging freedom of speech or of the press, and the Republicans could rightfully say that the government was becoming tyrannical.

356. The Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions. Influenced by Jefferson, the legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky promptly

passed resolutions expressive of decided opposition to the Alien and Sedition Acts. The Virginia resolutions, written by Madison, pronounced the Acts unconstitutional; but the Kentucky measures, framed by Jefferson, went so far as to declare the dangerous doctrine that a state might rightfully nullify any act of Congress that was a violation of the Constitution. The two sets of resolutions were sent to the legislatures of other states, but received little or no sympathy. The purpose of the resolutions was not so much to question constitutional rights,



WASHINGTON'S TOMB AT MOUNT VERNON

but rather to defeat the Federalist party at the approaching presidential election (1800).

Nullifying the law is to refuse to allow it to be enforced; hence nullification is a very dangerous doctrine, which, if exercised by the individual state, instead of by the Supreme Court of the United States, would soon break up the Union. The idea that states might resist the national government if

they saw fit was destined to make trouble many years later and finally brought about the Civil War.

357. The Death of Washington. In the midst of the excitement attendant upon the enactment of unpopular laws and party strife, Washington, the one man who possessed the moderating influence then so indispensable, died at his home at Mount Vernon, in the last month of the last year of the eighteenth century (December 14, 1799). The people mourned him as a father, who highly deserved the love and gratitude of the whole nation for all coming ages. Washington's remains were entombed at Mount Vernon. The tomb is a shrine which men of every nation, irrespective of party, creed, or color, visit with feelings of veneration. A tradition of the New York Indians says, "Alone of all white men, Washington has been admitted to the Indian heaven, because of his justice to the red men. He lives in a great palace and is dressed in his uniform with a sword at his side."

358. John Marshall Appointed Chief Justice. Before going out of office (1801) Adams performed the crowning act of his administration by appointing John Marshall, a Virginia Federalist, as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. Marshall, who for thirty-five years used his powerful influence to make the general government superior to the states in all questions concerning the common interests of the nation, proved himself the greatest of American jurists, and it is fittingly said of him that "he found the Constitution paper, and made it power." He has also, without exaggeration, been styled "a second maker of the Constitution."

The sending of an envoy to France without consulting the leaders of his party, the Alien and Sedition Acts, the taxes made necessary in preparing for the war with France, and the prosecutions for sedition, destroyed Adams's popularity in the Republican party and deprived him of the united support of the Federalists. After it had become evident that there would be a Republican president with a large majority in both houses

of Congress, the Federalists resolved to uphold their power in the third department and passed without any real need, a judiciary act, creating new courts, and new salaried officials. Adams was still busy appointing men for these offices when the hour of twelve struck on the night of March 3, 1801. The next morning he set out for his home in Quincy, Massachusetts, without waiting to greet his unwelcome successor.

359. Catholic Immigration. The Irish Rebellion of 1798 was the occasion of a vast stream of Catholic immigration to the United States. Owing to this fact, the Catholic Church grew rapidly in numbers, so that the Catholic population of New York, which eleven years previous had numbered about one hundred, had now increased to about fourteen thousand. It was, moreover, regarded as something marvelous that six priests should be ordained in New York City in one day. "The event," writes the venerable Bishop Carroll, "was a happy day for the diocese." In view of this increase, the Sovereign Pontiff raised the See of Baltimore (1808) to the rank of an Archbishopric with four auxiliary bishoprics—New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and Bardstown, Kentucky.

360. Notable Facts. The Federalist party, in power for the first years of our national life, had governed well. It had built up the credit of the country; prevented war with both England and France; and laid the foundation of a strong central government. Its task, however, was now completed, and in a few years the party passed out of existence. Nationality having now been firmly established, the country was prepared for a successful government under the Democratic-Republican, or common people's party.

CHAPTER XIX

THOMAS JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRATIC-REPUBLICAN—1801-1809

361. Jefferson and Burr Are Elected. The third presidential campaign began with the Federalists divided and the Democratic-Republicans united and hopeful. John Adams and Charles C. Pinckney were the Federalist candidates, while Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr represented the Democratic-Republicans. Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr each received an equal number of votes (seventy-three) and the election of the President was thrown for the first time into the House of Representatives. On the thirty-sixth ballot Jefferson received the votes of ten states out of sixteen and was elected President, and Burr became Vice-president.

The quarrel between Hamilton and Adams came to a climax in this election of 1800. Hamilton determined to prevent Adams from receiving the nomination for the presidency; not succeeding in this, he worked against him during the campaign, even spreading broadcast a letter in which he described Adams as totally unfit for the office. When the election of the President was thrown into the House of Representatives, Jefferson would, of course, have immediately been elected had the majority of the House been Republican. It was, however, Federalist, and the Federalists were free to choose from their enemies the one who was least likely to do them harm. Intrigues were entered into with both Jefferson and Burr. Neither candidate would make definite promises, although Burr held out hopes of alliance with the Federalists. Hamilton, reasserting his better self, now came forward with a letter and declared that of the two men Jefferson was the less dangerous. Thus, after a long and bitter struggle, Jefferson was chosen President of the

United States, and Burr Vice-president. Burr was a restless, scheming man, thoroughly distrusted by the better men of the country.

362. Jefferson's Inauguration. Jefferson (1743-1826) was the first President to be inaugurated in the new capitol, which was ridiculed as a "palace in the woods." He walked thither, clad in his ordinary attire, accompanied by a few political friends, and quietly took the oath of office without any impressive ceremony. Jefferson showed his greatness when he declared in



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his inaugural address: "We are all Republicans! We are all Federalists!" and mentioned the principles of the government as being:

- (a) equal rights to all men;
- (b) peace, commerce, and honest friendship with all nations;
- (c) no entangling alliance with any foreign power;
- (d) the supremacy of the civil over the military power;
- (e) economy in public expense; and
- (f) the honest payment of public debts.

Jefferson had for many years figured prominently in political life as a member of the Continental Congress, governor of Virginia, minister to France, Secretary of State, and Vice-president. Many people feared that he and his party would try to undo the work that had been done under Federalist supremacy. But he made no serious changes, and managed affairs so skillfully that the people's fears were soon quieted. Being a poor public speaker, he began the custom of sending his "annual message" to be read before Congress, instead of delivering it in a formal address, as Washington and Adams had done.

Jefferson was a most remarkable man. In addition to being an able statesman, he was a good marksman, a daring horseman, a skillful violinist, and a brilliant scholar. Though dignified and gentlemanly in manners, and scholarly in tastes, he had a strong dislike for ceremony and show. Of aristocratic Virginian descent, he had in his latter days become very democratic, having great faith in the common people. He wished the President to be simple in dress and manners, and to mingle freely with the people. His habit of attiring himself in a red waistcoat, yarn stockings, and worn-down slippers, of going to his duties at the Capitol on horseback, and tying his steed with his own hands before entering, and of hospitably keeping open house at all hours, made him a strong contrast to Washington, with his courtly appearance, weekly formal receptions, and coach-and-six. No wonder that such simple tastes, and sympathy for, and confidence in the common people, made him the idol of the masses, and engendered a tendency toward simplicity in the dress and manners of the people.

The Cabinet reorganized by Jefferson, unlike the Cabinets of Washington and Adams, was a harmonious and loyal body of men, of which, however, Madison, Secretary of State, and Albert Gallatin, Secretary of the Treasury, a noted Swiss, were the only members of more than average ability.

363. Some Economic Measures. Complying with the financial plans of Secretary of the Treasury Gallatin, Congress:

- (a) greatly reduced the army, though it appropriated money to establish a military academy at West Point;
- (b) sold some naval vessels and discontinued the construction of new ones;
- (c) repealed laws which levied internal taxes;
- (d) abolished some offices by joining two in one where practicable; and
- (e) increased the income from customs duties.

After the new Economic Measures went into effect fortifications were not kept intact and the army and navy were allowed to dwindle. Subsequent wars with the Barbary States and with England eventually showed that some of Jefferson's economic reductions were not wise.

364. The Louisiana Purchase. We have seen that France gave the part of Louisiana which was west of the Mississippi, and the Island of New Orleans to Spain after the treaty of Paris in 1763 in return for Florida. Napoleon, however, regretting the loss of the territory, succeeded in regaining it from Spain (1800). The knowledge of this exchange caused great alarm in the United States because:

- (a) France, being a more powerful nation than Spain, was also a more dangerous neighbor; furthermore, since France was on the verge of war with England, the latter nation might easily take Louisiana from France and then the United States would scarcely be able to maintain her dearly-bought independence, with her old enemy on both the north and the west;
- (b) the West lost its "right of deposit" at New Orleans.

James Monroe was appointed special envoy to France to assist our minister, Livingston, in securing by purchase the Island of New Orleans. France and England were again on the eve of war, and Napoleon realized that he could not hold Louisiana against England. He startled our envoys, therefore, by asking through his agent what the United States would pay for the whole of Louisiana instead of New Orleans alone.

Napoleon was too busy in Europe to think of colonizing America, and consequently preferred to sell Louisiana to the United States, rather than to let it fall into the hands of Great Britain—hence the unexpected inquiry relative to disposing of it.

The vast territory of Louisiana, comprising the entire region between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains and extending from the north of Texas to the southern boundary of British America, was purchased from France (1803) for fifteen million dollars.

Upon signing the treaty, Napoleon remarked, "This accession of territory strengthens forever the power of the United States, and I have given to England a maritime rival that will, sooner or later, humble her pride."

Livingston said, "We have lived long, but this is the noblest work of our lives."

The purchase of Louisiana was one of the most important events in the history of the United States. Among its far-reaching effects may be mentioned the following:

- (a) it doubled the area of the United States;
- (b) it ended the contest of rival European nations for the possession of the Mississippi Valley;
- (c) it showed the benefit of an occasional loose construction of the Constitution;
- (d) it placed the United States in a position to become one of the great powers of the world;
- (e) it made the United States a maritime rival of England.

In this purchase our ministers had gone beyond the power of their instructions, having neither the authority nor the money to purchase the entire territory; but fearing that Napoleon might change his mind, they completed the treaty. Jefferson, being a strict constructionist, was greatly perplexed, for, by the strict interpretation of the Constitution, there was no power given to the government to acquire territory. He advocated an amendment which should give Congress this power; but there was no time to be lost, and his friends finally

persuaded him that the treaty-making power of the Constitution (note the loose construction) included this right. The Federalists, taking the strict construction view, accused Jefferson of violating the Constitution in buying Louisiana.

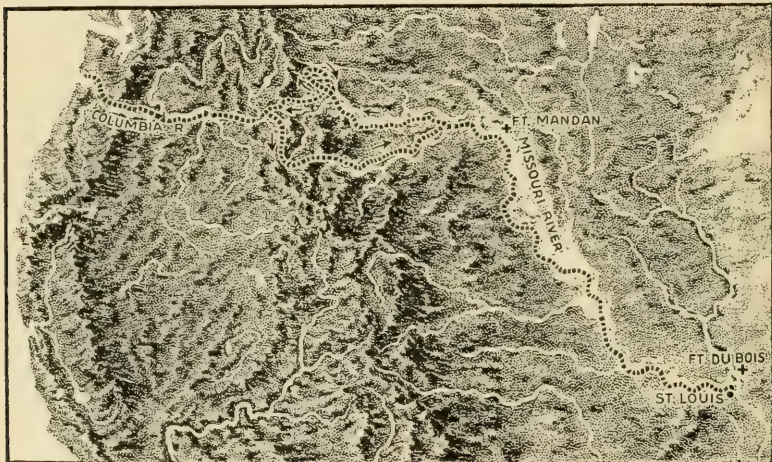
365. Jefferson Is Re-elected. When the fact and terms of the Louisiana Purchase became known, the people were astonished at the magnitude of the acquisition. The treaty was so clearly for the good of the nation that it was generally applauded, and at the election of 1804, Jefferson was re-elected by an enormous majority. George Clinton of New York was chosen Vice-president.

366. Duel Between Hamilton and Burr—Burr's Conspiracy. Aaron Burr was a candidate for the governorship of New York. Hamilton, considering him a man unworthy of the office, vigorously opposed him. Stung by the attacks of his opponent, Burr challenged him to a duel. The two men met at a secluded spot on the Jersey shore, and Hamilton fell, mortally wounded. Amid the lamentations of the nation, the great Federalist leader, who had merited the title "Little Lion" during the Revolution, was laid in the grave (July, 1804). He had helped to frame the Constitution and had, more than any other man, influenced the states to accept it; he had put into effect the great financial plan that was giving stability to the nation.

Burr's reckless spirit drove him into the wilderness. He made a tour of the Mississippi Valley, and began to build boats and collect an army under the pretense of making an expedition against the Spaniards of Mexico. His real purpose, however, it is believed, was to sever the southwestern states from the Union and set up an independent nation in Texas and Mexico, with himself at the head. He was at length betrayed, arrested, and tried for treason by Chief Justice Marshall of the Supreme Court, at Richmond, Virginia. The Constitution defines treason only as levying war against the United States or in adhering to the enemy and giving them aid and comfort. Burr had never been in a position to levy war or to aid an enemy. He was

therefore released. The career which his brilliant talents might have made honorable and useful, was wrecked, and Burr lived lonely and despised for the rest of his days.

367. First Explorations of the Northwest. The Louisiana Purchase opened a great field for western emigration, and Jefferson, realizing the importance of some knowledge of the new territory, sent an expedition, under the leadership of Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, brother of George Rogers



ROUTE OF THE LEWIS AND CLARK EXPEDITION

Clark, to secure the trade of the Indians on the Missouri, then absorbed by English companies, and to explore the country to the western ocean. Leaving the log cabin town of St. Louis in the spring of 1804, the party pushed its boats up the Missouri, crossed over the Rocky Mountains and floated down the Columbia River to the blue waters of the Pacific, which it reached in November, 1805, after a perilous journey of four thousand miles. The party returned the next year and gave the people of the East a glowing account of the "vast illimitable

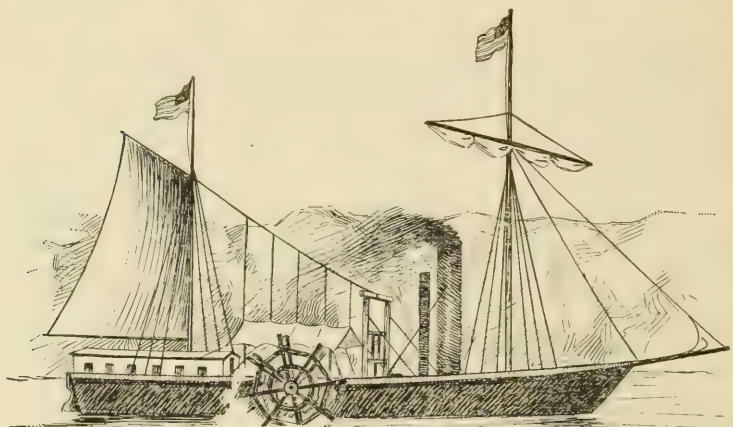
West'' with its wonderful resources. The Lewis-Clark expedition gave the United States another claim to the splendid region called Oregon, early discovered (1790) by Gray. It strengthened our rights to the Oregon country against the claims of England and Russia; and it, together with Pike's explorations, gave the nation an idea of the great value of the Louisiana Purchase.

Lieutenant Pike, in command of the United States troops, set out from St. Louis and explored the head-waters of the Mississippi, Arkansas, and Red rivers. He discovered the mountain peak to which was given his name, but was not successful in his attempt to reach its summit. Five years after the Lewis-Clark exploration, a New York fur trader named Astor, established a trading post at the mouth of the Columbia River, and called it Astoria. A line of posts was eventually established from the upper Missouri to Astoria by the Pacific Fur Company, headed by Astor.

368. Fulton's Steamboat. Many people feared that the Republic, with its vast new territory, was too large to be held together; but a means of bringing its parts in closer communication was even then at hand. Robert Fulton, a native of Pennsylvania, of Irish descent, invented the first successful steamboat, the *Clermont*. The boat made its trial trip up the Hudson from New York to Albany in thirty-two hours (August 11, 1807), and from this time on steam navigation made rapid progress; only twelve years later (1819) the *Savannah*, the first ocean steamship, started from Savannah, Georgia, and crossed the Atlantic to Liverpool in twenty-five days—a great feat, the credit of which belongs to a southern state.

No one knows when or by whom the first steamboat was invented. At the beginning of the year (1807) there was not one in use in all the world. A number of experiments made by both European and American inventors had met with some success. John Fitch, a Kentuckian, built a steamboat nearly twenty years earlier than Fulton, but it had only a temporary

success. No practical steamboat was constructed before Fulton's invention, and it was not until after the trip of the *Clermont* that the steamboat was regarded with favor and came into general use. Before that event people were prejudiced against such inventions and laughed at "Fulton's folly," which was finally described as a "monster, defying wind and tide, breathing flame and smoke."



FULTON'S STEAMBOAT

369. War with the Barbary States. During the previous presidencies the United States, having no ships-of-war worth mentioning, had to buy, as it were, the good will of the Barbary States, paying them high ransoms and tributes. Finally, the haughty Pasha, or governor of Tripoli, not contented with the tribute he had been receiving, became so insolent that Jefferson ordered the construction of a fleet of war vessels, which, under the command of Commodore Preble, he sent against Tripoli. During the attack the frigate *Philadelphia* had run aground

in the harbor of Tripoli, and was forced to surrender. Later on, however, a very high tide floated her off, giving the Tripolitans a fine addition to their navy. Stephen Decatur, one of the American officers, entered the harbor with a small vessel in which were concealed a number of men. Under the pretense that his ship was in distress, he pushed up close to the *Philadelphia*, leaped aboard it with his men, swept the enemy into the sea, set the ship on fire, and sailed away unharmed amidst the thundering fires of the batteries. The city was repeatedly bombarded, and the Pasha was so thoroughly humiliated that he was glad to sue for peace (1805). As a result of the treaty

- (a) the other Barbary States, surprised at this stand of the United States, also ceased their attacks on our commerce;
- (b) our merchant marine increased and became a training school in which our officers and seamen were prepared for the impending war with England;
- (c) Jefferson was forced to increase the navy, the good effects of which were soon to be felt.

370. France and Great Britain Plunder American Ships. The Barbary Powers were not the only enemies of American commerce. France and Great Britain, at war with one another, were trying to injure each other's trade, altogether regardless of the injury inflicted upon American commerce. Some of the arrogant measures of the two belligerents, which nearly swept American trade from the seas, were:

- (a) the British government published an "Order in Council" (1806) declaring all French ports from Brest to the Elbe in a state of blockade. Napoleon retaliated by the "Berlin Decree" (1806), declaring the British Islands in a state of blockade;
- (b) England, by another "Order in Council" (1807), forbade neutral vessels to enter a French port without previously stopping at a British port and paying a tax, and doing

the same thing on the return voyage. "Neutral vessels" here meant American vessels, as nearly all Europe was at war.

Napoleon promptly replied by his "Milan Decree," which declared that any neutral vessel which had paid a duty at an English port, might be seized at any French port.

According to law, ships are not allowed to enter a "blockaded" port except at the risk of being captured and confiscated. A blockade, however, to be effective, must have the entrance of the port guarded by ships. France and Great Britain both asserted only a "paper blockade," that is, issued mere blockading declarations without stationing any ships to enforce the same. American vessels bound to or from blockaded ports were captured anywhere on the high seas by the cruisers of both belligerents.

371. England Claims the Right of Search and Impressment. The arbitrary ruling of the English with respect to our neutral commerce finally became unbearable when England again began to search our vessels for seamen of English birth and to impress them into the British navy. British war vessels even anchored outside American ports and hundreds of American vessels were captured and thousands of our seamen impressed. The height of insult was reached when the British frigate *Leopard* overhauled the American frigate *Chesapeake* off Hampton Roads, Virginia, and ordered her to submit to search. Upon refusal, the *Leopard* opened fire on the *Chesapeake*, which, unprepared for battle, surrendered. Four men, three of whom were American citizens, were seized and impressed into British service. The whole nation was aroused at this outrage. Jefferson, in a letter to Lafayette, said that never since the battle of Lexington had he seen the country in such a state of indignation. The English government offered a half-hearted apology, but re-affirmed the right of search.

372. The Embargo Act. What could America do in the face of such outrages? One of two things:

- (a) make war on both France and England. Jefferson strongly preferred peace to war; or
- (b) lay an embargo on American shipping, forbidding trade with either nation. This course, however, would ruin thousands of merchants and traders, and deprive great numbers of seamen of employment.

Jefferson decided to try the embargo, and the Embargo Act, nicknamed "O grab me act," was passed (1807), forbidding American ships to leave for a foreign port under any condition. This was intended to prevent the loss of our ships and seamen and punish both France and England by depriving them of American goods. The act proved a complete failure. It seemed more like punishing America than Great Britain and France. All classes of industries, except manufacture, suffered severely under the law. The New England Federalists declared it unconstitutional, and threatened secession. France and Great Britain laughed at the embargo; consequently, the act was repealed after fourteen months and replaced by the Non-Inter-course Act, by which all commerce was prohibited with Great Britain and France, and their colonies.

Though the Embargo Act was a failure, it did some good by causing many of the people to turn to manufacturing, and from this small beginning our country has gradually grown to be one of the greatest manufacturing nations of the world.

373. Other Events. The unpopular Naturalization Act was repealed (1802) and the number of years' residence required for citizenship was reduced from fourteen to five, the same as it is at present.

Ohio, with a population of forty-five thousand, was admitted (1802) into the Union as the seventeenth state, without slavery.

The second census of the United States was taken in 1800; it showed a population of over five million and was the basis for a new apportionment of representatives. The unit was fixed at one representative for every thirty-three thousand inhabitants, and thus the membership of the House was in-

creased from one hundred and five to one hundred and forty-one.

In order to avoid the repetition of a contest such as the tie vote between Jefferson and Burr had occasioned, the Twelfth Amendment, which provided that the electors cast separate ballots for President and Vice-president, was proposed by Congress. The amendment was ratified by the states (1804).

Congress put a stop to the importation of slaves after January, 1808. The law was heartily endorsed by Jefferson, who, like Washington and most leading men of the South, held



MONTICELLO

slaves, but sincerely hoped that the country would find some peaceful means of freeing the negroes.

374. Jefferson Retires to Monticello. Jefferson's popularity suffered greatly on account of the embargo. He was, however, not long in regaining his former prestige, and the people urged him to accept the presidency a third term. However, he followed the example of Washington and refused. On leaving the capitol he retired to Monticello, his beautiful home in Virginia, where he spent the remainder of his useful life. His wisdom gained for him in his old age the title of "Sage of Monticello."

CHAPTER XX

JAMES MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRATIC-REPUBLICAN—1809-1817

375. Madison and Clinton Are Elected. James Madison, Secretary of State, and George Clinton, Vice-president, during the previous administration, were the Republican candidates for the election of 1808. They were elected by a large majority of electoral votes over Charles C. Pinckney and Rufus King, the Federalist nominees. The same principles (economy at home and peace abroad) continued to control the government and the same harmony, though not the same strength, was visible in the Cabinet. Albert Gallatin, one of our greatest financiers, continued at the head of the Treasury Department, and in 1811 James Monroe was chosen Secretary of State.

Madison (1751-1836), like Washington and Jefferson, was a native of Virginia (the Mother of Presidents). He had, as we have seen, acquired an enduring reputation as the foremost framer of the Constitution, as leader of his party in Congress, and as Secretary of State. He was universally esteemed for his kindly disposition, great refinement, statesmanship, and learning. Inasmuch as he was a most intimate friend of Jefferson, and a strong supporter of the Jeffersonian policy, his administration may be looked upon as a continuation of that of his predecessor. He hated war, and, like the three preceding presidents, thought it more conducive to the general welfare of the nation to avoid it. This, however, was fast becoming impossible.

376. Foreign Difficulties Continue. Foreign affairs were in a deplorable condition when Madison began his administration:

- (a) Great Britain and France, being still actively at war, continued to capture our ships on the ocean and in foreign ports;
- (b) the State Department at Washington had a list of six thousand American seamen who had been forced into the English navy, while nine hundred of our vessels were recorded to have been boarded by the British in eight years;
- (c) by virtue of the Non-Intercourse Act, our ships were still forbidden to trade with either France or England;
- (d) the English minister at Washington had made a promise that the Orders in Council should be withdrawn, provided the United States would repeal the Non-Intercourse Act. Subsequently, trade was reopened with England. The ships that first made the attempt to trade abroad were, however, immediately captured. The Orders in Council were still in force and the English minister who had made the promise was recalled as having exceeded his instructions, and the Non-Intercourse Act was again put in force.

Great Britain claimed, "Once an Englishman, always an Englishman," whereas the United States held that any foreigner could become an American by naturalization. There were, of course, causes for annoyance on both sides. It not infrequently happened that English seamen procured fraudulent naturalization papers and entered the American navy, so that it was not unusual for an English captain, visiting an American port, to find himself without a crew when ready to put to sea again. The better treatment and higher pay received in American ships made American naval service preferable to English service. In the meantime Congress (May, 1810) passed the "Macon Bill," which, named after its author, repealed the Non-Intercourse Act. It provided, however, that in case either Great Britain or France should repeal its decrees, non-intercourse should be resumed with the other nation.

377. Napoleon's Intrigue. The wily Napoleon, feigning friendship, announced in a letter to the United States a repeal of the Milan and Berlin decrees. At once numerous American vessels sailed for European ports, but they were promptly seized and despoiled by the French. Matters were now fast hastening toward a crisis.

Madison, provoked by all these outrages, ordered the frigate *President* to sea to protect our commerce. The *President* was soon fired upon by the British sloop of war *Little Belt*, and in the ensuing battle the English vessel was badly crippled. The people felt that this event avenged the *Leopard-Chesapeake* insult, which was still fresh in their minds.

378. More Indian Troubles. To add to the difficulties confronting the nation, the Indians of the western frontiers, led by the great chiefs, Tecumseh and "The Prophet," who, it is supposed, were incited by the English, threatened the safety of the western settlers. General William Harrison, governor of Indian Territory, collected troops and repulsed the savages at their town of Tippecanoe, on the Wabash River. The losses on both sides were very heavy, Harrison losing one-fourth of his men. Tecumseh, absent at the time of the battle of Tippecanoe—urging the southern Indians to join the confederation—returned only after the defeat of these northern tribes by Harrison.

379. War Declared. The responsibility of maintaining peace or entering upon war was now thrown upon Congress, which met in extra session (November 4, 1811). It had a strong Republican majority in each house—an unusual number of able and high-spirited young men from the West and South. These were led by John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, and Henry Clay, of Kentucky. This vigorous generation of young congressmen loudly advocated war and finally forced Madison to declare it, by threatening him with the loss of a second term in case he should refuse. Thus pressed and overruled, the peace-loving President reluctantly signed the act declaring war

against Great Britain (June 18, 1812). Two days previous, England had revoked the Orders in Council, but this news reached America too late. Even if it had come in due time, war could scarcely have been averted, unless Great Britain's claim of search had also been renounced. It has been said, without proof, however, that Madison agreed to sanction war as a condition of his renomination.

Calhoun (1782-1850) and Clay (1777-1852) were for the next forty years the great political leaders of the country. Calhoun, at this time a champion of nationalization and the protective tariff policy, afterwards became the leader of the opposing party, which advocated states' rights, slavery, and free trade. Clay, only thirty-four years of age, had gained prominence in his own state legislature, and later twice filled a vacancy in the United States Senate, where he at once gained distinction for his sound logic, force of will, and fiery eloquence. He was of a peace-loving spirit, and, rising above all personal and party considerations, was wholly devoted to the interests of the Union. Daniel Webster (1782-1852) of New Hampshire, the third of this notable group of statesmen, entered Congress some years later.

380. Who Is the Enemy? It may seem strange that the United States chose to declare war against Great Britain rather than France. Both nations seemed equally blamable as far as American commerce was concerned. However, it would have been foolish to declare war against both, and England was our old enemy. Moreover, there was the chance of wresting Canada from her, which achievement would not only drive her entirely from the continent, but might also force her to make a favorable peace. Hence the object of the war with England was not to secure directly the rights of vessel-owners, for it was thought that our weak navy would be no match for the English fleet in an ocean conflict, but rather to get possession of Canada, and thereby force England to acknowledge our commercial independence.

381. Madison Is Re-elected. The general popularity of the war was shown at the next election, in which Madison was the candidate of the war Republicans. The peace Republicans supported the Federalist nominee, DeWitt Clinton, of New York. Madison obtained one hundred and twenty-eight of the two hundred and eighteen electoral votes, and was re-elected President. Vice-president George Clinton died during office and Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, was chosen to succeed him.

382. Causes of the War of 1812. The United States now made preparations to enter upon the second war with England; this time to secure commercial independence. The causes for this war, briefly summed up, were:

- (a) the impressment of our seamen into the English navy;
- (b) the violation of the rights of commerce by British cruisers in American waters;
- (c) the "paper" blockades of the Orders in Council;
- (d) the attacks of the Indians incited by English traders.

The United States was wholly unprepared for the conflict and was forced to enter upon this important war without the support of all its sections. The people of the vigorous agricultural sections of the South and West, chafing under the humiliations which the nation had so long been suffering, clamored for war; but the peace Republicans of the middle states and the Federalists of New England preferred an irregular and hazardous trade to war. Most of the little money then in the United States was possessed by the people of New England. They refused to lend it to the government to carry on the war, and they refused to muster their militia.

383. American War Plan for 1812—Failure. The project of invading and overrunning Canada before England could send a large army to America seemed to be uppermost in the minds of the Americans. Hence three armies were brought together on the Canadian frontier:

- (a) one, under General William Hull, was to defend Detroit,

the key to the fur trade, and the controlling center of the land of the Northwest;

- (b) another, under General Van Rensselaer, was to cross the Niagara River. Re-enforced from Hull's army at Detroit, it was to capture York (Toronto), and thence advance to Montreal, where it was to be joined by
- (c) a third army under General Dearborn, advancing from Lake Champlain. After the capture of Montreal, the combined forces were to take Quebec.

General William Hull toiled over the miserable roads through the forest from the Maumee River to Detroit. Followed by a



FORT DEARBORN AND DETROIT

large force of British and Indians, under General Brock, he fell back on Detroit, where, to the surprise of everybody, he surrendered (August 8, 1812) Detroit and the whole of Michigan without a blow. Fort Dearborn (on the present site of Chicago) had meanwhile also fallen into the hands of the British. Its inmates were cruelly massacred by the Indians.

The inhabitants of the Canadian frontier were ill disposed toward the United States. They were largely Tories who had withdrawn thither during or after the Revolution. Hull, having been subsequently tried by court-martial, was sentenced to be shot, but in consideration of his age and gallant services during

the Revolution he was pardoned by the President. Historians are divided in regard to his course. Hull himself declared that humane motives alone, and the fear of the certain massacre of his forces by the savages, intensified by exaggerated reports of the enemy's strength, led him thus to sacrifice his reputation. It is hard to fix the stain of cowardice upon the gray-haired veteran who had fought bravely, side by side with Washington, through the perils of Trenton and Princeton; who had gallantly led his men to the charge at Saratoga; and who had faced without flinching the fire of the enemy at Stony Point.

The second army, under Van Rensselaer, crossed the Niagara River and attacked Queenstown Heights, but not being reinforced by the New York militia, which was unwilling to leave the state, the entire army was surrounded and captured (October, 1812). Van Rensselaer had generously equipped his militia at his own expense, but when it proved itself too cowardly to fight, he threw up his command in disgust.

The third army, under General Dearborn, failed to procure ready assistance from New York and New England and accomplished nothing.

Thus all the land campaigns of the first year of the war ended disastrously for the Americans, and it was clear that Canada could not be conquered at a dash.

384. Naval Victories of 1812. The first of our numerous and glorious naval victories was won by David Porter, captain of the *Essex*. His ship was mistaken for a merchantman and fired upon by the British sloop *Alert*. Porter replied with a terrible broadside and captured (August 13, 1812) the *Alert* without the loss of a man, after an engagement of only eight minutes.

Six days later the American frigate *Constitution*, commanded by Captain Isaac Hull, met the British frigate *Guerriere* in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. After a contest of forty minutes the British ship was reduced to a total wreck, while the *Constitution* sustained but slight injury. This victory was hailed with ringing cheers and expressions of great rejoicings,

for the *Guerriere* had been particularly active in the searching of American vessels. The *Constitution*, described by an English writer as "a bunch of pine boards sailing under a bit of striped bunting," grew to be the pet ship of the American navy and came to be known by old and young, from one end of the land to the other, as *Old Ironsides*. This famous ship was built in Boston and launched October, 1797. In 1830 it was pronounced unseaworthy and was to be destroyed. Poets and newspaper writers earnestly interposed and its destruction was thus averted. After being thoroughly repaired it again put to sea. It made its last trip in 1877. Since then it has been used as a barrack, or receiving ship, in which the crews of our navy live while their own ships are undergoing repairs, and as such it may still be seen in the navy yard of Charlestown, Massachusetts. (Read Holmes's "Old Ironsides.")

Captain Jacob Jones, in command of the *Wasp*, captured (October) the British sloop *Frolic* off the coast of North Carolina, but scarcely was the battle over when a British man-of-war captured both the *Wasp* and her prize.

Numerous privateers, too, had ventured to sea from every important harbor, greatly hampering British commerce and capturing no less than three hundred prizes during a single year.

385. Naval Successes and Reverses of 1813. The year opened with a renewal of naval successes for the Americans. The sloop *Hornet*, with Captain Lawrence in command, captured the British brig *Peacock*. The *Essex*, with Porter in command, cruised for a year and a half in the waters of the Atlantic and Pacific, captured many British merchant vessels, broke up the British whaling trade, and afforded protection to American merchantmen. It was at last (1814) captured in the harbor of Valparaiso by two British men-of-war.

The naval victories of 1813 were practically offset by the reverses. Captain Lawrence, having been made commander of the frigate *Chesapeake*, was defeated near Boston harbor by

the British frigate *Shannon*, commanded by Captain Broke. The last order of Captain Lawrence, when mortally wounded, "Don't give up the ship!" became the rallying cry of the American navy. This was our first important naval defeat, but it was not the only one. The *Essex*, as we have already noted, was captured in a neutral port; the *Argus*, after destroying twenty-seven vessels in the English Channel, was taken by the *Pelican*; our frigate *President* was captured while endeavoring to escape the blockade of New York harbor.

386. Perry's Victory—The Constitution. On the lake frontier, a young naval officer, Captain Perry, had been busy building a fleet of nine war vessels on Lake Erie. The British also equipped a fleet under Captain Barclay. The two forces met (September, 1813) at Put-in-Bay. The outcome of this desperate fight was expressed in Perry's laconic message to General Harrison: "We have met the enemy and they are ours, two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop." Perry's victory was the turning point of the war, for it gave us control of the Great Lakes and the West, thus enabling Harrison to enter Canada. Perry, a native of Rhode Island, had never been in action before. He named his flagship *Lawrence*, and a blue banner at its masthead bore the dying words of the brave Captain Lawrence, "Don't give up the ship!"

There were many more American naval victories, but it remained for the *Constitution*, the celebrated *Old Ironsides*, with Captain Stewart in command, to win the final victory. Not knowing that the war had ended, he cruised off the island of Madeira and falling in with the British vessels *Cyane* and *Levant*, captured both after a sharp battle of forty minutes (February, 1815).

387. American Privateering. England had blockaded the American ports one after another, and most of our fleet was shut up in the harbors of Boston, New London, and New York. Before the end of the year the blockade of all the Atlantic ports was effected. Hence, the defense of the newly acquired

American reputation at sea was left to privateers, small vessels, quick to strike and quick to escape. In this way the Americans made their ships sources of profit. During the two and a half years of war our privateers took fourteen hundred prizes while the national cruisers took three hundred more. The *True Blooded Yankee* alone captured twenty-seven vessels in thirty-seven days, venturing even into Dublin Bay. Consequently, insurance rates on English vessels became excessive, and tradesmen and ship-owners loudly denounced the continuation of the war. The British during this time made prizes of about seventeen hundred of our merchantmen. Unarmed vessels bearing the United States flag had (1814) almost ceased to sail the ocean.

388. American Land Campaign of 1813. The land campaign of 1813 opened with a second attempt to invade Canada. The plan was threefold:

- (a) General Harrison was to proceed by way of Michigan, which territory he was to recover;
- (b) General Dearborn was to lead his army by way of the Niagara frontier; while
- (c) General Hampton was to move up to Canada by way of Lake Champlain.

General Harrison, who was in charge of the American forces on the Maumee River, accordingly moved on toward Detroit. A part of his army under Winchester was defeated on the Raisin River (January) by a superior force of British and Indians, commanded by Proctor; the savage allies of the British cruelly massacred and scalped the wounded. For years after, the River Raisin was a name of horror and "Remember the Raisin" became the war-cry of the Kentuckians, who were numerous represented at this battle. Harrison twice repulsed Proctor at Fort Meigs and a third time at Fort Stephenson, but being scarcely able to hold his line of defense he could not retake Detroit as long as the English held control of Lake Erie. Commodore Perry, as we have seen, gallantly came to

his rescue. Harrison, upon receiving the young hero's laconic dispatch, crossed to Canada, where he defeated the British-Indian forces commanded by Proctor and Tecumseh on the Thames River (October). Michigan territory was now regained and at least a part of Harrison's mission was accomplished.

General Dearborn crossed Lake Ontario from Sackett's Harbor and burned the British supplies at York, now Toronto. Later, he attempted to invade Canada from Lewiston, but was forced to return without having accomplished anything. During the summer, General Dearborn was removed and General Wilkinson appointed in his place.



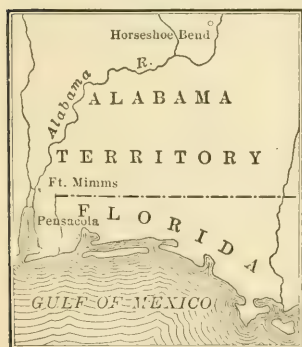
Generals Hampton and Wilkinson, the former commanding a part of the latter's army, failed in their expedition against Montreal, owing to the fact that the two old generals could not agree. Thus we

see that Dearborn's and Hampton's parts of the plan for 1813 were complete failures.

389. Gloomy Prospects for 1814. Though the navy, and also the land forces under General Harrison, had won some brilliant victories during the year 1813, the prospects at the opening of the year 1814 were gloomy, because :

- (a) there was great difficulty in raising troops;
- (b) the war department was badly managed;
- (c) the finances were in a miserable condition;
- (d) good leaders were lacking;
- (e) England's conflict with Napoleon was nearing its close, so that she could now devote renewed energy to her American war.

The Canadian campaign for this year was entrusted to the able General Jacob Brown, with Winfield Scott as brigadier-general. Under Brown's generalship the well disciplined troops easily took Fort Erie. Pushing northward they drove the British from their entrenchments at Chippewa, and forced them to retreat along Lake Erie. Having been re-enforced, the retreating foe turning about, surprised and attacked the Americans at Lundy's Lane. After a most obstinately contested battle the British retreated. These were the last hostilities in this region.



both the North and South were without a leader and were willing to conclude terms of peace.

The Creek Indians, incited by Tecumseh, massacred the white settlers at Fort Mimms, Alabama, slaying some four hundred persons. Andrew Jackson, to whom had been entrusted the Southwest, promptly gathered a body of volunteers from Tennessee and Mississippi, invaded the Creek country, and completely defeated the Indians at Tohopeka, or Horseshoe Bend, on the bank of the Alabama River. After Tecumseh had been killed, the Indians of

390. The British Plan for 1814. Meanwhile Napoleon had been deposed and exiled to the island of Elba. England was consequently free to send a large number of veteran British troops to make a final attempt toward subduing the United States.

Three great expeditions were accordingly planned:

- (a) the capture of Washington;
- (b) the invasion of New York by the old Burgoyne route;
- (c) the invasion of Louisiana by way of New Orleans for the purpose of snatching this newly acquired territory from the United States.



In accordance with the first part of the plan, five thousand British troops under Ross marched fifty miles across a populous country and coolly took the national capital against feeble resistance by a force under General Winder. They burned the White House, the unfinished Capitol, and other public buildings, thus retaliating for the burning of York by

Dearborn—and withdrew to their ships without encountering any serious resistance. Historians tell us that the English people did not approve of the destruction of our government property. One English editor is said to have declared, “The Cossacks spared Paris, but we spared not the Capitol of America.”

Encouraged by this success, General Ross now led his army against Baltimore, but here he met with stubborn resistance. The British forces were repulsed (September) and General Ross was killed. The British next attacked Fort McHenry, which guarded the approaches to Baltimore, but were again

forced to withdraw. They then sailed to join the expedition against the South. During the night attack upon Fort McHenry, Francis Scott Key, of Baltimore, was detained on board a British ship, whither he had gone to secure the release of some prisoners. All night long he watched the bombardment of the fort. Eagerly watching the flag still flying over Fort McHenry, he wrote in pencil on the back of an old letter our national hymn, "The Star Spangled Banner," which was soon being sung throughout the country.

The American forces on Lake Champlain were in charge of Commodore McDonough, whose flagship was the *Saratoga*.



BATTLE OF LAKE CHAMPLAIN

When the British, commanded by Prevost, entered Plattsburg (September), McDonough, after having earnestly implored the Divine assistance, began a sharp two hours' naval contest, which resulted in a victory for the Americans. Prevost retreated to Canada, and the war in that section was ended.

To Edward Pakenham, one of Wellington's ablest lieutenants, with an army of some ten thousand veterans, supported by a fleet of fifty vessels, was entrusted the capture of New Orleans. The expedition effected a landing below the city. Andrew Jackson, the great conqueror of the Creek Indians, had already hastened thither and had hurriedly gathered some

six thousand men from Kentucky, Tennessee, and the neighboring region, five thousand of whom were Catholics. With these troops of intrepid backwoodsmen, the hardy Indian fighter took his stand behind breastworks and poured a deadly fire into the ranks of the British, who were forced to withdraw, after the loss of some two thousand men, among whom was Pakenham. Never before in English history had a British army been so badly defeated. The American loss was exceedingly light—probably some seventy men all told.

391. The Treaty of Peace. In a few days, rumors of Jackson's brilliant victory reached Washington. But this good news was soon followed by a still greater cause for rejoicing. Even before the battle of New Orleans was fought peace had been signed at Ghent, Belgium, on Christmas Eve, 1814. Owing to the slow means of communication the document, signed by the peace commissioners, had not reached the United States in time to prevent the battle.

The terms of the treaty provided:

- (a) for the mutual restoration of all conquered territory; and
- (b) for the appointment of commissioners to settle the northern boundary line of the United States.

Strange to say, though the causes of the war were chiefly the impressment of our seamen and the British "Orders in Council," nothing concerning these two points was mentioned in the treaty. But there was, nevertheless, a tacit understanding on both sides, that American commerce was not to be interfered with, and Great Britain thenceforward never again impressed our seamen. Besides, peace, even at a sacrifice, was at the time desirable, for New England was assuming a dangerous attitude.

392. The Hartford Convention. Delegates from nearly all the New England states met in secret session at Hartford, the real proceedings of which were not made known. It is supposed that the purpose was to arrange for secession from the Union. As the delegates were all Federalists and their meeting

a secret one, the whole affair bore the stamp of national disloyalty, which, with the party's opposition to the war, gave the death blow to the Federalist party.

393. Results of the War. At the close of the war, the country was still where it stood in 1812. Its boundary was unchanged; its international rights were still undefined; the country was still divided by sectional interests. The war, notwithstanding, had its good results:

- (a) European nations were convinced that we were able to take care of ourselves, and our ships thereafter navigated the ocean in peace;
- (b) the United States was thenceforward recognized by the world as a first-class power;
- (c) a new impulse was given to our heretofore backward manufacturing industry. The embargoes and the maritime dangers which had retarded American commerce had caused many capitalists to turn their attention to manufacturing, and thereafter we were not obliged to depend upon England for cotton and woolen goods;
- (d) love for and confidence in the Union were increased—a long stride forward since Washington's time.

The war also drew more distinctly the lines between the three sections of the country. The North, having taken to manufacturing, realized that a protective tariff was necessary for its growing industries, especially since foreign goods were shipped in large quantities into the country after the war. The West, because of certain products which it could sell to the manufacturers, also encouraged a protective tariff. The South, however, having less to gain from manufacturing industries than the North, preferred free foreign importations, which afforded cheaper manufactures than those produced in this country.

394. The Tariff of 1816. The first tariff act, the main object of which was protection, was passed in 1816. It imposed a duty of about twenty-five per cent on imported cotton and woolen

goods and a specific duty on salt and iron. This tariff had its supporters, led by John C. Calhoun, who was still a strong advocate of nationalization; it also had its opponents, led by Daniel Webster, who represented the New England shipping interests, and by John Randolph, the champion of the agricultural South.

It will be remembered that the act for raising revenue, passed at Hamilton's suggestion in 1789, had for one of its objects the protection of manufactures. However, at that time rates were low and the tariff was not sufficient to build up young industries. In fact, the country was not in a condition to engage extensively in manufacturing.

We see here a beginning of the cause for a division in the Democratic-Republican party. This party was gradually changing its views. It saw that a strict construction of the Constitution could not always be followed, as shown in the Louisiana Purchase and the rechartering of the national bank, and so the Democratic-Republicans began more and more to favor nationalization and to adopt many of the principles of the old Federalist party.

395. The Barbary States Again. The Barbary States, having for seven years faithfully complied with the terms of the treaty effected during Jefferson's administration, began during the war of 1812 to repeat their outrages on our merchantmen cruising in the Mediterranean. They again captured many of our vessels and made slaves of the crews. Consequently, after peace (1815) had been declared with England, Commodore Stephen Decatur captured two of the pirates' ships near Gibraltar, and then scouring the Algerian coast, forced the Dey of Algiers to release our sailors and to pay for damage done to our commerce. Decatur next proceeded to Tripoli and Tunis and forced both of these powers to come to terms. The Barbary States have never since molested our shipping.

396. The United States Bank Rechartered. Jefferson's party had bitterly opposed Hamilton's bank, hence it failed to be

rechartered when its first twenty years' charter had expired (1811). Therefore, only state banks were in existence during the war and the paper money which they issued, owing to poor management, decreased greatly in value, and as no one knew the exact value of the money in use, business suffered. At Madison's suggestion, Congress re-established a United States bank, again chartering it for twenty years, and giving it all the powers of Hamilton's bank, and with three times as large a capital.

397. New States. Two new states were added to the Union during Madison's administration. Louisiana, the eighteenth state, was admitted with slavery (1812). Indiana, the nineteenth state of the Union, and the second one formed out of the Northwest Territory, was admitted (1816) as a free state.

CHAPTER XXI

JAMES MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRATIC-REPUBLICAN—1817-1825

398. Monroe and Tompkins Are Elected. At the presidential election held in the autumn of 1816, James Monroe of Virginia was elected as the fifth President, with Daniel B. Tompkins of New York as Vice-president. Since the Federalist party was now practically extinct, there was but little party strife in the country; in fact, Monroe might be looked upon as a representative of the people, rather than of the Republican party. A general good will prevailed, and even Jefferson and John Adams forgot past differences and renewed their friendship of earlier days. Accordingly, this presidency is known in history as the "era of good feeling." Monroe took the oath of office and gave his inaugural address at Washington, near the ruins of the capitol.

Monroe (1758-1831) was the last of the Revolutionary heroes to be president. In ability and accomplishments, he cannot be compared with any one of the first four presidents. He was a plain, honest citizen, possessing the confidence of the masses of the people, and was a man well fitted to lead the nation in the peaceful times upon which it was about to enter. In the public service, Monroe had been a soldier in the Revolution, a United States Senator, twice an envoy to France, minister to London, governor of Virginia, and finally Secretary of State during the previous administration. His Cabinet was the ablest since Washington's time. Secretary of State John Quincy Adams had been one of the negotiators of the treaty of Ghent, and Secretary of War John C. Calhoun had been the champion of the war party of 1812. Jefferson at Monticello

and Madison at Montpelier, though they lived in retirement, were also influential advisers of Monroe.

399. Monroe's Tour. Monroe was pre-eminently a peace-maker, and shortly after his election made a tour of the northern states, where he received everywhere a most enthusiastic welcome. In New England the sight of the President, clad in the uniform of the Revolution, vividly recalled the scenes of the war. People forgot their political differences and hatreds; even the Federalists of the Hartford Convention and the aged John Adams were among the thousands who honored the President, and joyfully declared that the "era of good feeling" had begun. This visit of the President to the northern states did much toward breaking down sectional lines and uniting the country.

400. War with the Seminoles. Florida, still in the hands of Spain, caused both the United States and the mother country much trouble. There were in this territory a great many runaway slaves, pirates, and robbers. These, joining the Seminole Indians, kept up a constant warfare against the whites of Georgia and Alabama. At length, Andrew Jackson, in command of the forces of the South, was sent (1817) by our government to put a stop to these outrages. He promptly entered Florida; drove the Seminoles from place to place, and captured the Spanish forts, St. Marks and Pensacola, which gave them shelter. Jackson's task was not an easy one. The Indians and negroes sought refuge in the swamps and thickets of Florida, but the hardy Indian fighter used vigorous measures, even hanging two British traders who had incited the savages to hostilities. Spain protested against Jackson's course of action, which was also violently criticized in Congress and by the Cabinet. Calhoun proposed that Jackson be court-martialed, but matters were finally adjusted by the purchase of Florida.

401. Treaties with England and Spain. A treaty with Great Britain, signed in London (1818), provided that the fishermen of the United States could fish on the shores of British America

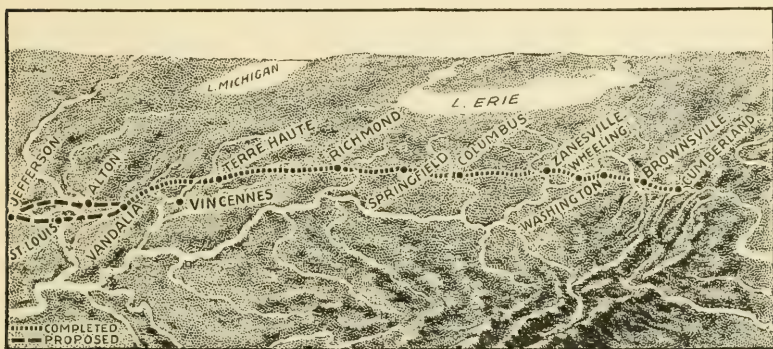
and enter its harbors either to procure water and fuel, or to repair their vessels and find shelter.

The treaty of 1818 provided that the disputed region lying between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean should be jointly occupied by both countries. At the same time the northern boundary was fixed as the 49° N. L. from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains.

A two-fold treaty was negotiated with Spain (1819), by which the United States purchased Florida from that country for the sum of five million dollars, and the boundary line of the Louisiana territory to the southwest and west was fixed. To Spain was apportioned the territory west of the Sabine River, and to the United States the Oregon country, thus strengthening her existing claim. The part allotted to Spain had previously been claimed by the United States. It comprised the present State of Texas. The boundary line to the southwest and west was fixed as follows: the Sabine River from its mouth to the thirty-second parallel north latitude, thence due north to the Red River; up the Red River to the one-hundredth meridian; north on this meridian to the Arkansas River; up the Arkansas to its source; thence due north to the forty-second parallel; and westward on this parallel to the Pacific.

402. The Cumberland Highway. The power of the Indians of both the Northwest and the Southwest was now broken and the vast fertile West was open to immigration. Thousands of people, especially from New England, began to move westward. The farther west they pressed, the greater became the difficulties of transportation and communication. Steamboats and ferryboats were, it is true, already plying the rivers, but all kinds of goods had to be transported over wide stretches of country through which flowed no navigable rivers. The westward-moving emigrants needed a roadway to connect the East and the West. The western frontiersmen were anxious to exchange products, such as potash, lumber, flour, skins, and grain for the hardware, clothing, household goods, and farm-

ing implements of the Atlantic states. People living in the towns and cities along the seaboard also wanted to get their mail more frequently and have their freight forwarded with greater dispatch. To satisfy the pressing demands of the times, a great national highway, called the Cumberland Road, was built by the United States government. It extended from Cumberland, on the Potomac (Maryland) to Wheeling on the Ohio (Ohio), at which point connection could be made with steamboats running to Cincinnati or even to New Orleans. Later the road was continued as far as Illinois, but the building of railroads made its farther extension unnecessary. The



THE CUMBERLAND NATIONAL ROAD

National Road, or the Cumberland Highway, was a turnpike road, paved with stone, covered with gravel, and averaging eighty-five feet in width. Along this broad, solid, smooth road, which wound up the rocky sides of mountains, and across deep chasms, long processions of emigrant wagons and pack-horses proceeded slowly on their way toward the Ohio, into the wild western country which is now covered with prosperous farms and thriving towns.

The marvelous development of the West is without a parallel in history. It was given additional impulse by the great tide of foreign immigration which, during the years 1815-1848, in-

creased the population of the United States by more than two million.

403. New States. Largely as a result of this development of the West, five new states were admitted in five consecutive years during Monroe's administration: Mississippi, the twentieth, as a slave state (1817); Illinois, the twenty-first, as a free state (1818); Alabama, the twenty-second, as a slave state (1819); Maine, the twenty-third, as a free state (1820); Missouri, the twenty-fourth, as a slave state (1821). The last



CHICAGO IN 1820

eight new states were admitted to the Union alternately as slaveholding and non-slaveholding states. This entering in pairs was not accidental, but intentionally arranged, so as not to disturb the balance of power in the Senate.

404. Slavery—The Missouri Compromise. The long contest over a strong or weak national government had been fairly settled and the “era of good feeling” seemingly still prevailed when, suddenly, was heard, as Jefferson said, “like a fire-bell at night,” a question which had silently divided the Union and threatened to dissolve it—the question of slavery—which was

to disturb the country for the next forty years and was to be settled only by the sword.

By the Ordinance of 1787 slavery was prohibited north of the Ohio. Necessarily, the admission of Missouri was preceded by violent debates in Congress. Should Missouri be admitted as a free or as a slave state? Upon the decision of that question practically depended the fate of slavery and freedom throughout the Louisiana Purchase. At length, Congress passed a bill, introduced by Henry Clay, and known as the Missouri Compromise (1820). It decided that Missouri should be admitted as a slave state, but that in all the rest of the Louisiana Purchase, slavery should not exist north of $36^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude. This famous compromise line, which eventually became to the West what the Mason and Dixon's line was to the East, postponed the final struggle over slavery for over thirty years.

405. Liberia Founded. According to the Constitution the importation of slaves was prohibited by Congress after January 1, 1808, but illegal importations were still made. Finally, in 1820, the slave trade was declared to be piracy, the penalty of which was death. The slavery question gave rise (1816) to the formation of the American Colonization Society, which had for its object the encouraging of the emancipation and the providing of homes for the freed slaves. The government assisted it by handing over to the society slaves captured while in course of illegal importation. Subsequently, a negro republic, called Liberia, was founded (1822) on the western coast of Africa in which the freed slaves could enjoy the rights of self-government.

406. The Monroe Doctrine. The Spanish-American colonies in South and Central America and Mexico, encouraged by the example of the United States, had rebelled and made good their independence of the mother country (1822). Russia, Prussia, France, and Austria had formed a league, termed the Holy Alliance, to maintain one another's rights and

privileges. The United States feared the interference of these powers. Russia had issued a decree forbidding all foreigners to approach within one hundred miles of the American coasts north of the fifty-first parallel. It seemed that Russia was intent on preventing the United States from possessing any territory on the Pacific coast. The English minister proposed that Great Britain and the United States join in opposing the Holy Alliance. But Monroe, wisely acting on Adams's advice, politely declined the English minister's offer, and in a celebrated message to Congress (1823), later known as the Monroe Doctrine, declared:

- (a) that the United States would take no part in European wars;
- (b) that the United States would not interfere with any European colony already established;
- (c) that the United States would regard as an unfriendly act any attempt by a European nation to gain dominion in America;
- (d) that North and South America were no longer open to colonization by European powers.

Before the war of 1812, Europe would have been amused at such a declaration, but now it was taken seriously, and as a result projects of European intervention were at once abandoned; Great Britain, like the United States, recognized the independence of the Spanish-American republics; and Russia made a treaty (1824), giving up her claim to the Pacific coast as far as Alaska or the latitude $54^{\circ} 40'$.

407. Lafayette Is the Guest of the Nation. In 1824, the Marquis Lafayette, then an old man, revisited the United States as the nation's guest, in response to an invitation of Congress. The people, remembering his disinterested services during the Revolution, welcomed him with enthusiasm. The venerable Frenchman visited every one of the twenty-four states which then composed the Union and beheld with wonder the gi-

gantic strides the country had taken toward wealth and prosperity. He stood with reverent affection at the tomb of Washington, and laid the cornerstone of the Bunker Hill monument on the spot where Warren had fallen fifty years before. He was finally borne home in the national ship, *Brandywine*, so named in honor of Lafayette's first battle in the cause of American freedom.

408. The Tariff Law of 1824. The tariff law of 1816 had not produced satisfactory results. Consequently, another act was passed (1824), increasing the duties on iron, wool, and hemp, and also, though in a less degree, on woolen goods; this tariff averaged thirty-seven per cent; the tariff of 1816 had averaged twenty-five per cent.

Clay once more came forward as the champion of the protective system, which, as he said, "would create a home market and lay the foundation of a genuine American policy." Webster opposed the measure as he had done in 1816, declaring "freedom of trade to be the general principle, and restriction the exception."

The South violently protested against the tariff, declaring that it was of no benefit to them and profitable to two classes only—the agriculturists of the West and the manufacturers of the North. The South, being an agricultural section and having no factories, held that high tariff diminished foreign trade and consequently injured the market for their cotton in Europe, and also compelled them to pay higher prices for the goods they were obliged to buy.

The West greatly favored the law, arguing that the encouraging of manufacturing in the East would give it markets near at hand for its surplus products, and that the revenues resulting from the tariff would enable the government to construct new means of transportation across the Alleghanies.

The North, of course, supported the tariff, because it prevented the sale of foreign goods at a lower price than those produced at home. As a result, the votes of the western,

middle, and eastern states overruled those of the South, and the bill was passed.

409. Indian Missions. The Catholic Indian missions on the Mississippi had been revived by Bishop Dubourg of New Orleans. The Jesuits opened a school for Indian boys at Florissant, Missouri (1824), near the junction of the Missouri and Mississippi rivers, where the Ladies of the Sacred Heart had already established a school for Indian girls. Among the Jesuits at Florissant was Father John De Smet, one of several young Belgians who had come to the United States. He devoted the whole of his life to the Indian missions. His extraordinary career recalled the heroic days of Jogues and Breboeuf, and merited for him the title "Apostle of the Rocky Mountains," just as the princely Father Gallitzin received the title "Apostle of the Alleghanies."

CHAPTER XXII

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION

NATIONAL-REPUBLICAN—1825-1829

410. Adams and Calhoun Are Elected. The presidential election of 1824 found four candidates in the field—John Quincy Adams, Henry Clay, William Crawford, and Andrew Jackson—all Republicans or Democrats, at that time synonymous terms. No one received a majority of the electoral votes. Jackson had ninety-nine electoral votes, Adams eighty-four, Crawford, forty-one, and Henry Clay, thirty-seven. Accordingly, for the second time in the history of the United States, the election went to the House of Representatives. The House chose for the presidency, John Quincy Adams of Massachusetts. John C. Calhoun was elected Vice-president.

Henry Clay used his powerful influence for the election of John Quincy Adams, because he believed him to be best qualified for the position. Adams, subsequently, made Clay Secretary of State, whereupon it was promptly charged that Clay had bargained to support Adams in return for a promise of appointment to the office of Secretary of State. Within a few days, Jackson's adherents published abroad the assertion that there had been a "corrupt bargain" between the two men. Both Adams and Clay denied the charge, and it is fair to say that there was no truth in it. The slanderous charge of the "corrupt bargain," however, followed Clay all his life and greatly injured the policy of Adams. The Jacksonians boldly claimed that Jackson had been deprived of the presidency by a trick. They furthermore held that, as Jackson had received more votes than any other candidate, the House should have respected the popular will and chosen him. It

was evident that the "era of good feeling" was over and that Adams would little enjoy the high office he had attained.

John Quincy Adams (1767-1848) was the eldest son of the nation's second President, John Adams. He was a statesman of great ability, having been schooled from his youth in public affairs. He had been a United States Senator, Minister to Russia and to Great Britain, and Secretary of State under Monroe. He was noted for his broad-mindedness, untiring labor, and uprightness of purpose—all excellent qualities for an ideal president. He was, however, severe in his criticism of others and seemed never willing to take advice. Hence, he could not become a successful administrator. Besides, he was bitterly opposed by personal and political enemies, especially the Jacksonians, who sought in every possible way to make him odious to the public. Naturally, his presidency, like that of his father, was, on the whole, a failure.

411. Three Great Problems—Political Parties. The ruining of the Federalist party by the Alien and Sedition Laws and the Hartford Convention left the Democratic-Republican the only political party during Monroe's administration. New problems began to present themselves and ultimately led to a difference of political views on the following questions:

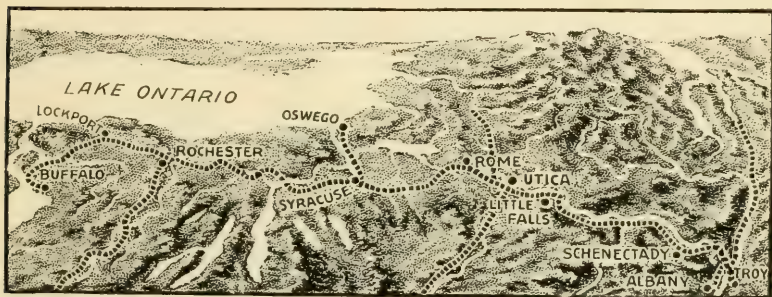
- (a) should internal improvements be made by Congress, at national expense?
- (b) is the true policy of the country a tariff for revenue only, or a tariff for the protection of home industries?

The advocates of a protective tariff, and of internal improvements at national expense, gathered around Adams and Clay as leaders, and called themselves National Republicans, because they sought to increase the power of the national government. They were, in a general way, the descendants of the Federalist party.

Another party, the stronger in number, the old Democratic-Republicans, gathered around Andrew Jackson, under the name of Democrats. They advocated a low tariff, and internal im-

provements at the expense of the respective states, and may be considered as representing Jefferson's party.

The National Republicans held that Congress should make internal improvements at the expense of the whole people; the Democrats argued that, since limited areas, only, were benefited by roads, and canals, the people of these limited areas (private companies and individual states) should bear the expense. The National Republicans urged that the tariff duties should be placed so high that foreign goods could not compete with domestic manufacturers. This, they argued, would keep our mills and factories busy, afford high wages



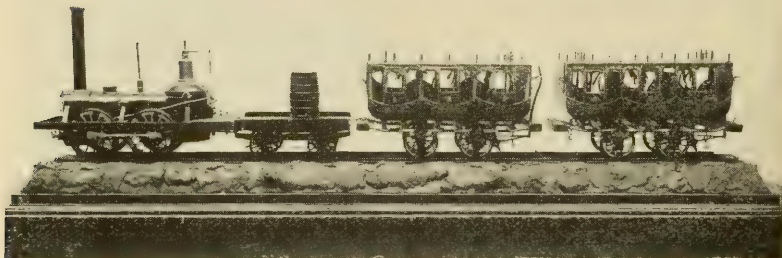
THE ERIE CANAL

to the laborers, and make the country prosperous and independent of foreign markets. The Democrats claimed that the people should be allowed to buy their goods where they could get them the cheapest.

412. The Erie Canal. The eastern markets, beholding with alarm how the New Orleans steamboats distributed European goods to the Western settlers, demanded of Congress that it build canals between the East and the West. Congress, however, felt that it did not have the right under the Constitution to do this. Meanwhile, the various states were making internal improvements at their own expense. The most notable of these was the Erie Canal, a stupendous undertaking by

the state of New York. The canal was constructed under the leadership of DeWitt Clinton. This important waterway, begun in 1817, and completed during Adams's administration (1825), extended from Buffalo on Lake Erie, to Albany on the Hudson. It was three hundred and sixty-three miles long, forty feet wide, and four feet (later seven) deep.

The building of the Erie Canal had far-reaching results: it became the great commercial highway between the East and the West; it reduced the transportation charges nearly ten-fold; and helped to make New York the leading commercial



EARLY RAILROAD

city of America and gave rise to other numerous flourishing cities along its course.

413. Roads — Canals — Railroads. Pennsylvania, unwilling that New York should have all the Western trade, built a chain of canals and roads between Pittsburg and Philadelphia. Baltimore also tried to improve her connections with the West. Several western states started to build canals, but before many of them were finished the first railroads came into use and formed new and better means of transportation.

The first passenger railroad (1827) extended from Baltimore to Ellicott's Mills, a distance of about thirteen miles. This road afterwards became a part of the Baltimore and

Ohio Railroad. The cars on the track resembled huge wagons on wooden rails, and were drawn by horses. The horses were soon displaced (1831) by steam engines, which ran at the then rapid rate of fifteen miles an hour. The venerable Charles Carroll of Carrollton, ninety-one years of age (1827), the only surviving signer of the Declaration of Independence, turned with a firm hand the first spadeful of earth which began the construction of the celebrated Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. When the ceremony was over, he exclaimed, "I consider this one of the most important acts of my life, second only to the signing of the Declaration of Independence."

414. Foreign Relations. Adams and Clay were fortunate in concluding a number of good commercial treaties, but failed to secure the important trade of the British West Indian ports because they did not comply in time with certain demands of Great Britain.

A Congress of all the American republics was held at Panama, in response to an invitation by General Simon Bolivar of Venezuela. Adams was anxious to have the interests of the United States represented at the convention; Congress, however, refused to vote the funds necessary for sending delegates to Panama. The negro republic of Haiti had also been invited, but our slave owners disliked the idea of sitting at table with the free negroes of Haiti; they feared the influence of the example of the black republic on their slaves.

415. The Tariff of Abominations—The Albany Junto. Many manufacturers, claiming that the tariff of 1824 did not give them sufficient protection, especially on woolen goods, demanded higher tariff rates. A bill was therefore prepared which increased the duties on certain raw articles to a ridiculously high figure. This bill passed both Houses of Congress (1828), and is known as the "Tariff of Abominations." The duty on wool, for example, was raised from about thirty to about seventy per cent, and that on hemp from thirty-five to sixty dollars per ton.

The tariff of 1828 was intended by the Jacksonians to make Adams unpopular. Randolph fittingly said that this tariff bill referred to manufacturers of no sort or kind except the manufacture of a President of the United States. A clique, known as the Albany Junto, and composed of Jacksonians, with Martin Van Buren of New York as leader, devised a scheme by which, under pretext of favoring a high protective tariff measure, it might defeat the bill and at the same time win the supporters of Adams for Jackson's cause. An enormous duty was laid on raw materials, most of which were produced in the West. The schemers argued that manufacturers, thus finding their gains neutralized, would become enraged and join the South, which was antagonistic to the tariff measures, in opposing the bill. Jackson would thus keep the votes of the South and, still seeming friendly to the West, also secure many northern votes. As one historian says, "They wanted to kill Adams with the bill, and then kill the bill." But they could not "kill the bill," and, much to the dismay of the plotters, it was passed, abominations and all, on the strength of the votes of Adams's men. The latter thought it was better than no bill at all, and that it might in time be changed.

416. Protests Against the Tariff—National Authority Defied. In 1816, John C. Calhoun favored a protective tariff to encourage domestic industry, while Daniel Webster opposed it as hostile to the shipping interests of his state. Now, however, Webster advocated protection and Calhoun opposed it. Five of the southern states protested against the Tariff Bill. Calhoun, as the champion of this movement, suggested that the state of South Carolina hold a convention which would declare the act "null and void within the limits of the state." In the words of one historian, the "ghosts of the Kentucky and Virginia resolutions seemed to be re-appearing." Webster feared that a new confederacy would be established in the South. Matters stood still for a while, however. All par-

ties were waiting to see what stand the new President would take concerning the tariff.

The people of Georgia attempted to remove the Creek and Cherokee Indians from the state. Both of these partly civilized tribes were settled on permanent farms, and enjoyed by treaty with the United States a tribal government. They therefore owed no allegiance to Georgia. President Adams objected to Georgia's course of action, and attempted to protect the rights of the Indians, whereupon Governor Troup of Georgia promptly called out the state militia to resist the United States troops. Congress was rather pleased at the humiliation of the President and declined to support him. Hence, Adams was obliged to yield to this state's defiance of national authority. These two instances of South Carolina and Georgia are evidences of the fact that the spirit of nationalism, which had been powerful, was now declining.

417. Semi-Centennial of American Independence. The fiftieth anniversary of American Independence was celebrated on July 4, 1826. On that day, also, John Adams and Thomas Jefferson died at their widely separated homes in Massachusetts and Virginia. Jefferson had written the Declaration of Independence and Adams had done more than any other man to secure its adoption; each had signed it; each had served as foreign minister, Vice-president, and President.

418. Adams's Administration but a Long-drawn Campaign. The administration of John Quincy Adams was little more than a long-drawn and passionate presidential campaign preparatory to the election of Jackson and was characterized by slander, gross abuse, and political intrigue. Free traders, high protectionists, states' rights men, strong bank men, and anti-bank men—all supported Jackson, whose views on these points were unknown. 'Hurrah for Jackson—turn the rascals out!' was the rude cry of the campaign of 1828. Adams's friends urged him to use his influence and authority toward his reelection. But the President nobly refused, declaring that he

would not use the public patronage to further his political fortunes. In so doing he gave one of those rare examples where the office seeks the man and not the man the office. The Jacksonians, many of whom were only office-seekers, felt that their hero would stand by them and eventually reward them for the work they were doing for him. Adams, after his term of office had expired, entered Congress (1831) as a Representative from Massachusetts. In this position he showed great ability and eloquence and won his true laurels, especially as a fearless anti-slavery champion, which merited for him the title of "Old Man Eloquent." He was stricken with apoplexy at his post in the capitol and died (1848) after having been in high public service for fifty-three years.

CHAPTER XXIII

ANDREW JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRAT—1829-1837

419. Jackson and Calhoun Are Elected. At the election of 1828, as had been foreseen, Jackson, the Democratic candidate, was triumphantly elected President. He received nearly twice as many votes as John Quincy Adams, the National Republican nominee. Calhoun was re-elected Vice-president.

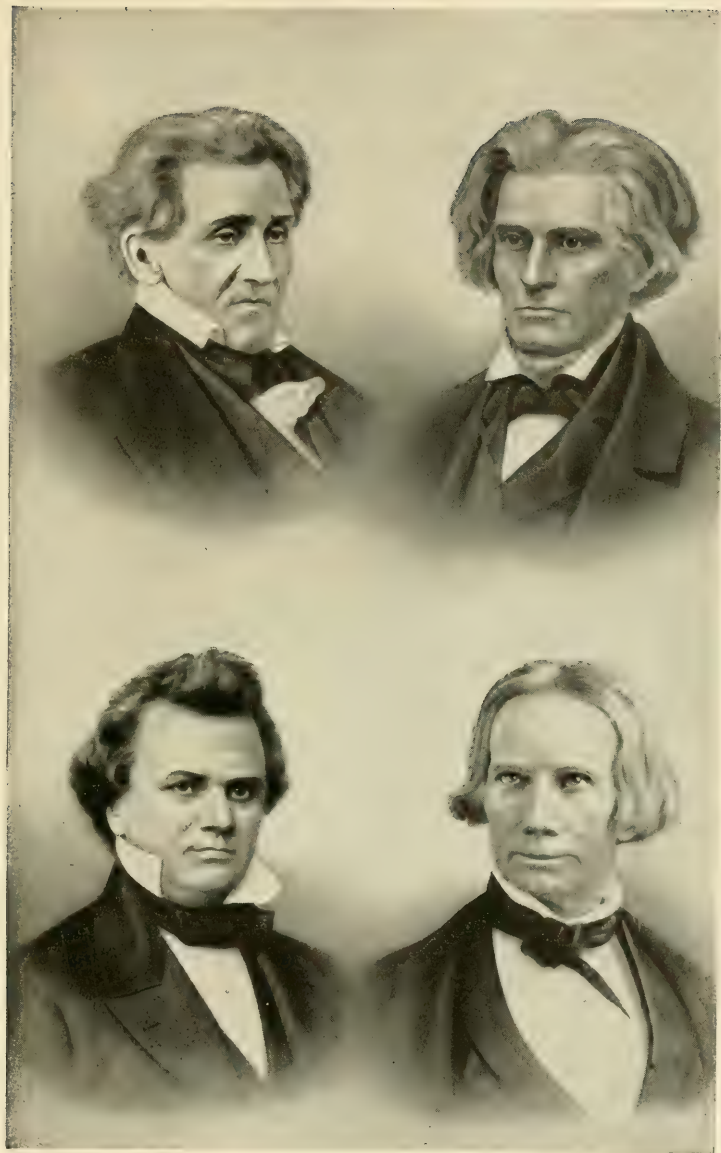
Heretofore the Presidents, all statesmen of high rank, representing the culture and refinement of the seaboard, had been chosen from the aristocratic states of Virginia and Massachusetts. Now, for the first time, a man of humble birth and of little culture, sat in the White House. Andrew Jackson (1767-1845) was a rough and ready backwoodsman and a hardy Indian fighter. Born in the Carolina backwoods, and left alone in the world at fifteen, he grew up amid the alarms and hostilities of the Revolution. Later, he made his way to that part of Carolina now known as Tennessee, and with a little knowledge of law began practice at the bar. He distinguished himself as a soldier, became a national hero in the war against the Creeks (1812), served as territorial governor of Florida, and became respectively a United States Representative and Senator from Tennessee. The great popularity gained in his battles with the Indians and his wonderful endurance of hardships, won for him the affectionate nickname of "Old Hickory." Though uncouth in looks, unconventional in dress and manners, uneducated, self-confident and headstrong, he was, nevertheless, noted for generosity of heart, uprightness of mind, absolute honesty, and utter fearlessness. While hating his enemies intensely, he was devotedly attached to his friends,

and even so blind to their faults that, at times, he unconsciously became the instrument through which unprincipled office and money seekers accomplished their schemes.

Jackson's Cabinet was a weak one, composed for the most part of very ordinary men. Martin Van Buren, Secretary of State, was the only man of ability and reputation appointed to a seat in the Cabinet at the opening of the administration. The personnel of the Cabinet, however, was a matter of little consequence, since Jackson dominated the entire government. He rarely consulted his Cabinet, as he preferred the advice of a few intimate friends, whom the newspapers of the time called his "Kitchen Cabinet."

420. A New Era of American History. The election of Andrew Jackson to the presidency opened a new era in American history. The Democratic spirit of the West and South, which now triumphed over the aristocratic spirit of the East, placed the reins of government in the hands of the plain people. In fact, the national period was in reality just beginning. New issues, such as the tariff, the United States Bank, the Indians, internal improvements, and particularly slavery, now took the place of the old colonial problems of representation, taxation, commercial regulations, etc. Nearly all of the older statesmen, the framers of the Constitution and the organizers of the government, as also their associates, had passed away. The leading men of this political era with Jackson were Martin Van Buren, the shrewd politician, Henry Clay, the father of the American protective system, and John C. Calhoun and Daniel Webster, the great expounders of the Constitution.

421. Notable Facts. Jackson's presidency will be remembered in history for three things: the introduction of the Spoils System, the crushing of Nullification in South Carolina, and the discontinuance of the United States Bank. Jackson's political views at the time of his election were not known even by his supporters. It soon became evident, however, that the



ANDREW JACKSON
STEPHEN A. DOUGLAS

JOHN C. CALHOUN
HENRY CLAY

NATIONAL AND STATE RIGHTS LEADERS

new President favored strict construction of the Constitution, and therefore opposed internal improvement at national expense, protective tariffs, and the United States Bank.

422. The Spoils System. No sooner was Jackson inaugurated than crowds of his supporters hastened to Washington to receive their reward. Jackson, believing that "to the victors belong the spoils," promptly introduced the so-called "spoils system." The old officials who belonged to the defeated party were turned out and their places filled with men belonging to the successful party. During the first year of his presidency Jackson removed more officials than his six predecessors had removed in forty years. Thus began the corrupt system, called "rotation in office." It is only just, however, to say that Jackson was desirous of appointing only men of ability, although he was frequently misled in his selection through the advice of friends. Consequently, a large number of political frauds and scandals marked his administration, though he himself was absolutely honest.

423. The Webster-Hayne Debate. While the topics of tariff and nullification were being widely and violently discussed, one of the greatest debates in our annals took place in the United States Senate (1830) between Robert Hayne, the spokesman of Calhoun (the champion of the South) and Daniel Webster of Massachusetts. Hayne, presenting Calhoun's theory of states' rights, declared in a brilliant speech that the Constitution was a mere compact formed by sovereign states, and that, accordingly, a state might withdraw from the compact whenever it saw fit to do so and might declare an act of Congress null and void in case it thought that the government had exceeded its powers. Webster, in a speech classed among the greatest of the world's orations, replied that the Constitution was not a mere compact, but the "supreme law of the people and answerable to the people"; hence, that no state had the right to withdraw from the Union; neither could any state nullify an act of Congress on the ground that such act was

unconstitutional, since it belonged to the Supreme Court, and not to the state courts, to decide the constitutionality of the acts of Congress.

It was indeed a proud hour for the nation when Webster with his manly form and commanding voice, arose to address the Senate and its overflowing crowd. His closing words, "Liberty and Union now and forever, one and inseparable," which rang through the hall, have rung throughout the land to the present day. The debate won for Webster the title of "Defender of the Constitution."

424. The South Carolina Nullification Act. The "tariff of abominations" had brought South Carolina, led by Calhoun, to the verge of rebellion and secession. The state was but waiting to see what the new administration would do. Though Congress (1832), in revising the tariff of 1828, slightly lowered the rates, it also recognized the protective tariff system, which now, more than ever, promised to fasten itself permanently upon the nation. South Carolina, therefore, promptly passed the Nullification Act, which declared that the tariff acts of 1828 and 1832, being "null, void, and no law," were not binding upon the states or their citizens, and threatened to leave the Union in case the Federal government attempted to enforce the acts. This Nullification Act was to go into effect February 1, 1833.

Enraged by South Carolina's high-handed action, the iron-willed President promptly sent General Scott and two war vessels to the port of Charleston and ordered the revenue commissioners at that port to collect the duties on imports under the protection of a military force. He furthermore issued a proclamation which declared that the Constitution did not form a compact, but a government; that nullification was unconstitutional and revolutionary; and that he would enforce the laws without fear or favor.

The South Carolina leaders knew that Jackson was not in favor of high tariff duties and hoped to win him for their

cause. In this, however, they were greatly disappointed. Jackson, in a bold declaration that the laws of the United States must be executed, said: "My duty is emphatically pronounced in the Constitution; those who told you that you might peaceably prevent their execution deceived you—their object is disunion, and disunion by armed force is treason."

425. The Force Bill—Clay's Compromise Tariff. Upon Jackson's request, Congress enacted a so-called Force Bill, which gave the President power, if necessary, to use the army and navy for the purpose of enforcing revenue laws. A heated debate at once ensued, in which Calhoun, speaking for the South, maintained that a state had the right to nullify acts of Congress and to secede from the Union; while Webster, speaking for the North, denied the right of nullification and secession, and upheld the Union and the Constitution.

Meanwhile Henry Clay, to avoid force of arms, introduced (1833) a compromise tariff measure, by which tariff rates were to be reduced gradually for ten years (until July, 1842), from which time there should be on all imported articles a duty equal to twenty per cent of their value. The Force Bill and Clay's Compromise Tariff passed Congress at the same time. South Carolina was satisfied and repealed her nullification ordinances. Clay, on being told that his action with regard to the compromise tariff would injure his prospects for the presidency, replied, "I would rather be right than be President."

426. Jackson and the Bank. Jackson, like most other Democrats, believed that the United States Bank was unconstitutional; that it enriched its managers at the expense of the people; that it had grown corrupt and dangerous to the freedom of the country; and that it used its powerful influence in politics.

In one respect the Bank was advantageous to the people inasmuch as the money paid the government was not withdrawn from circulation. But this advantage was overbalanced

by the fear that the Bank might at any time exercise its great power in politics, which it actually did in 1832, when it used money to oppose the re-election of Jackson.

Upon Clay's urgent advice, the friends of the Bank now (1832) brought matters to a crisis by introducing into Congress a bill to recharter it for twenty years longer, though the old charter would not expire till 1836. After a heated discussion, lasting five months, the bill passed both houses of Congress. Jackson, however, promptly vetoed it, giving as reasons that it was an "unnecessary, useless, expensive, un-American monopoly, always hostile to the interest of the people, and possibly dangerous to the government as well." Naturally, the campaign cry for 1832 was "Jackson or the Bank."

427. Jackson Is Re-elected—He Withdraws the Government

Deposits. Jackson was re-elected President (1832) by an overwhelming majority over Henry Clay, the great leader of the National Republicans. Martin Van Buren of New York was chosen Vice-president. The presidential campaign of 1832 gave rise to our first national conventions and party platforms (written statements of party views). Before this, presidential candidates were named by a congressional caucus or by state legislatures. The Anti-Masonic party, whose aim was to keep Freemasons out of office, really originated our national conventions. It met and named William Wirt for President (1831). This party carried only the state of Vermont and soon after disappeared. The National Republicans next met in convention and unanimously nominated Henry Clay for the presidency. They made the first platform ever issued. It declared that the party favored protection of American industries, internal improvements, and a United States Bank, and denounced the Spoils System, or practice of turning men out of office for political purposes. The nominees of the Democratic convention were, as we have seen, Jackson for the presidency, and Van Buren for the vice-presidency.

Jackson, regarding his re-election as an approval of his anti-

bank policy, determined to give the Bank a final blow. He promptly ordered (1833) the Secretary of the Treasury to remove the government deposits from the Bank. When the Secretary of the Treasury refused to carry out this order, Jackson removed him from office. Roger B. Taney, appointed in his place, gave orders for the removal of deposits. The government now withdrew its money from the Bank to pay its debts, and future deposits, instead of being made in the National Bank, were placed in certain state banks, situated chiefly in the South and West. These banks, selected not so much for their soundness as for their political influence, came to be known as "pet banks." Meanwhile, state banks, termed "wild-cat banks," were springing up on every side. Within eight years the number increased from three hundred and twenty-nine to seven hundred and eighty-eight. Hundreds of these, having no capital at all, received deposits, and flooded the country with their notes, called "rag money." People could now borrow money more easily than ever before. This "wild-cat banking" gave rise to even wilder speculation, which extended to every branch of trade, especially in the western states and territories. Eager to grow rich, people bought government lands at perhaps a dollar or two an acre. These they expected to sell at enormously increased rates, particularly if the land was located near imaginary towns laid out in the wilderness or along routes of proposed railroads or canals. There was a general rise in prices. Everybody was borrowing, in order to buy and sell and grow rich.

428. Jackson's Specie Circular. Jackson became greatly alarmed, and determined to protect at least the United States Treasury against unsound money. Contrary to the advice of the Cabinet, he issued (1836) his celebrated "Specie Circular," by which he ordered the land agents to receive only gold and silver in payment for government land. The effects were immediate. The great demand for gold and silver created a scarcity of this coin. A crash was inevitable, but before it came Jack-

son had retired from office, confident that the "Specie Circular" would restore prosperity.

Jackson's anti-bank actions have been most harshly criticized; still we now believe that he did the country a valuable service in discontinuing the National Bank, for such a monopoly, absolutely controlling the money of the people, might ultimately have proved detrimental to the interests of the nation.

429. Surplus Government Money Loaned to the States. By January, 1835, the government had paid all its debts. It was, however, collecting about thirty-five million dollars revenue a year more than it could reasonably expend, under the strict construction of the Constitution, nor could this revenue be diminished, according to the Compromise Tariff Act of 1833. The "pet banks" had already received about eleven million dollars. Acting on the advice of Calhoun, Congress loaned, without interest, the surplus funds to the states, in proportion to their representation. It was not long, however, before the financial crash came, and the government was obliged to borrow money to pay its current expenses. The money thus loaned to the states, and never recalled, was used chiefly in the construction of public works.

During the exciting times of the bank discussions, in which the President was denounced as tyrannical, and as having disregarded the Constitution and the laws, the National Republican party took the name Whig (1834), the name by which the patriots of the Revolution were known.

430. A Negro Insurrection. During the years of nullification and bank controversies, there arose anti-slavery agitations, which were not to cease until slavery was abolished by the Civil War. Nat Turner, a negro slave, headed an insurrection at South Hampton Virginia, which resulted in the killing of sixty white people and of more than one hundred negroes, before it was subdued. This affair greatly amazed the South and brought home to them the perils always surrounding them.

431. Anti-Slavery Movement. Benjamin Lundy, one of the early anti-slavery agitators, founded an anti-slavery paper (1821) and made anti-slavery speeches throughout the country. On one of his tours through New England he met William Lloyd Garrison, a Boston printer, who had spent some time in the South and had come face to face with slavery on its own soil. After returning home and hearing Lundy, Garrison established an anti-slavery paper, called the "Liberator," in which he expressed hostility to slavery. He declared that it should be abolished at once, and asserted that it would be better to have no Union at all than to have a Union with slavery in one section of it. He denounced slavery as "a sin against God and a crime against man," and said that the Constitution, by giving it support, was a "covenant with death and an agreement with hell." But the prevalent sentiment of the North at the time was against abolition, not because the North favored slavery but because it was feared that the abolition movement would imperil the peace of the country. Many people held with Webster that it was better to save the Union with slavery than to deliberately destroy it for the sake of giving freedom to the negro.

The influence of Garrison's writings spread rapidly, and within a year, hundreds of societies had been formed in the North for the purpose of abolishing slavery. They numbered among their members the famous Wendell Philips, called the "silver-tongued orator," and Theodore Parker, a learned preacher who, in burning language, rebuked the advocates of slavery. Lectures, pamphlets, books, and newspapers propagated among the people the anti-slavery ideas of the abolitionists.

432. The "Gag Law." The abolitionists flooded Congress with petitions to abolish slavery in the District of Columbia and to discontinue the trade of slaves between the different southern states. The southerners, dreading the effects of the constant discussions of the slavery topic, passed in the House

of Representatives a "gag law," by which all petitions or bills relating in any way to the subject of slavery should be laid aside without any further action thereon. John Quincy Adams denounced the "gag law" before the House as a direct violation of the Constitution. Calhoun defending it, declared: "It (slavery) has grown with our growth, and strengthened with our strength. . . . We will not, cannot, permit it to be destroyed." On the other hand, Senator Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, warned the Southerners in these words: "The sacred right of petition and the cause of the abolitionists must rise, or fall, together." The "gag law," nevertheless, continued in effect for several years (1836-1844).

The southern people held that inasmuch as the whole industrial system of the South was built upon slavery, abolition would cause the financial ruin of their section of the Union.

433. Foreign Affairs. Jackson received great credit for his handling of our foreign affairs; in this point he was as successful as Adams had been unsuccessful. A treaty was negotiated with Great Britain, by which that nation opened her West Indian ports to the United States. The French "Spoliation Claims," or the claims of the United States against France for depredations upon American commerce, were vigorously pushed, and France paid five million dollars in 1835. Similar long-standing claims of the United States against other European powers were also settled.

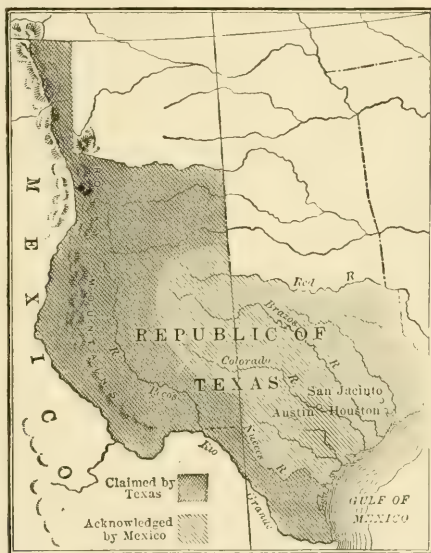
Before Mexican independence was established, some hundred American families, under Stephen F. Austin, settled, with the consent of Spain, in that part of Mexico which is included in the present state of Texas. After Mexico had declared her independence of Spain, the Texans, claiming that the Mexican government was oppressive, declared their independence. Mexico immediately declared war. At Fort Alamo, a former Franciscan mission house, the Texan garrison was overpowered and massacred. Thereafter the rallying cry of Texas was, "Remember the Alamo!" Finally under Samuel Houston, the

Texans defeated the Mexicans, under Santa Anna, in the battle of San Jacinto; thus Texan independence was secured (1836), and was subsequently acknowledged by the United States (1837). The boundary line of the new republic, however, was not clearly defined. Texas claimed much wider territory than Mexico would acknowledge.

434. Indian Wars. Indian wars disturbed the peace of the country during a large part of Jackson's administration. The Black Hawk War (1832), in which the Sac and Fox tribes fought under the famous chief, Black Hawk, broke out in what is now Wisconsin. The cause of the war was, as usual, disputed land claims, and the result was a complete defeat of the Indians, who were removed beyond the Mississippi. The Second Seminole War (1834-1842) was caused by an attempt to remove the Seminoles and Creeks of Florida to the

region west of the Mississippi. The Indians committed a number of massacres. General Thompson and a few companions were assassinated while sitting at table. General Winfield Scott was then sent against the Indians and Chief Osceola was captured.

Under Colonel Zachary Taylor the war was soon brought to an end, and the defeated Seminoles reluctantly took their course westward.



435. Other Events. A very destructive fire broke out in New York City (December, 1835), near the corner of Wall and Broad Streets. Eighteen million dollars' worth of property was destroyed and thousands of people were reduced to poverty and rendered homeless.

During Jackson's administration a number of eminent men of our early history died—James Monroe (July 4, 1831); Charles Carroll of Carrollton (1832); Philip Freneau (1832); John Marshall (1835); James Madison (1836).

Two states were admitted during the administration: Arkansas (slave state) as the twenty-fifth (1836); and Michigan (free state) as the twenty-sixth (1837). Michigan was the fourth state to be formed from the Northwest Territory.

436. First Provincial Council—Anti-Catholic Attacks. During Jackson's administration the first Provincial Council, the first held in the nineteenth century and the first in any English speaking country since the Reformation, was held (1829) at Baltimore. At this Council Archbishop Carroll and five of the eight bishops of the United States represented the Catholic Church in America and many wise regulations for its government were adopted.

From the beginning of the establishment of Catholicity in America, there existed a party called Nativists, which, under the pretext of defending American institutions, carried on a warfare, sometimes open and sometimes secret, against the Catholic Church. Although there had been no open sign of hostility against the Catholic Church for nearly a generation, unhappily, as time went on, its growth was regarded by the Nativists with disfavor. Vile books, sermons, and lectures against the Catholic religion gradually gave rise to such excitement that a mob (August 11, 1834) attacked the Ursuline Convent at Charlestown, near Boston, drove out the defenseless nuns and children, and burned their home to the ground. St. Mary's Church in New York was also plundered and given to the flames. The government made no attempt to prevent these

outrages and the leaders were subjected to only a farcical trial, which resulted in their acquittal.

437. National Progress. Jackson's administration was notable not only as a turning point in political affairs, but also as the beginning of a marked commercial and social progress. A new literature arose, which will be spoken of later on, in a review of the century's progress. Suffice it to note here that the stirring events which had occurred since the making of the Constitution and the rapid growth of the country soon found a place in song and story. Patriotic literature, which includes the great speeches of Clay and Webster, helped to strengthen the Union. American artists depicted scenes from the history of the nation, such as the signing of the Declaration of Independence, Washington crossing the Delaware, and Perry's victory on Lake Erie.

CHAPTER XXIV

MARTIN VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRAT—1837-1841

438. Van Buren and Johnson Are Elected. In the election of 1836, Martin Van Buren, the Democratic nominee, was made President by a majority of forty-six electoral votes. The Whig vote was divided among several candidates, of whom the leading one was General Harrison, of Tippecanoe fame. As the electoral college failed to choose a Vice-president, Richard M. Johnson was elected by the Senate.

Van Buren (1782-1862) was born of Dutch ancestry at Kinderhook, New York. He had been in succession United States Senator, Governor of New York, Secretary of State, and Vice-president. From the very first, popular feeling began to go against him; people thought him a small, selfish politician, responsible for many of the evil proceedings of Jackson's reign. Nor was this to be wondered at, since he had secured the votes of Jackson's adherents by pledging himself to follow closely in the footsteps of his former chief. Van Buren, nevertheless, showed himself to be an able political manager, strong enough to withstand the distrust of his fellow-men, and his tact and geniality in dealing with his opponents won for him the title of "Little Magician."

439. The Panic of 1837. Van Buren had scarcely taken the oath of office before the country was in the midst of the worst financial panic it had ever experienced. People who had gone in debt were ruined. Bank after bank—pet banks and wild-cat banks—failed. Business houses went bankrupt. Factories closed their doors, and thousands of laborers were thrown out of work. Poor crops in the middle and western states added

to the general distress. High prices and high rents weighed heavily on the poor. Flour rose to eleven dollars a barrel and corn to one dollar and fifteen cents per bushel. Strikes and bread riots occurred in cities, and the people called loudly for help from the government. But the national government had not even the money to pay its officials. Adams truthfully declared, "Without a dollar of national debt, we are in the midst of national bankruptcy." Individual states had borrowed millions of dollars from European nations and now found it impossible to raise money to pay the principal or to meet the interest. For many years afterwards Europeans looked with disfavor on American securities.

The causes for the panic may be traced to reckless banking and to wild speculation. The danger of the banking system arose from the fact that the banks issued notes (promises of money), though they had no money or capital to redeem their promise. The notes of a Michigan bank bore on them a picture of a wild-cat; when this bank failed, its notes became known as wild-cat notes and afterwards all banks that could not redeem their bills (pay for them in gold or silver) were called "wild-cat banks," and their notes "wild-cat money."

440. The Independent Treasury. The experience which the government had passed through twice (1814, 1837) proved that it was not safe to deposit the nation's money in state banks. Van Buren, showing real strength at this critical time, called a special session of Congress to devise some plan for protecting the funds of the United States. This session passed (1840) the Independent Treasury Act, which provided that the government should maintain a safe place in which to keep its money in order that the nation's funds might not be exposed to a risk of loss in state banks, as was the case in the disastrous failure of the "pet banks." Congress furthermore provided that the officials of the government should give security for the proper discharge of their duties, and that all payments to or by the United States should be exclusively in gold or silver.

The Independent Treasury plan was repealed soon after, but was later reënacted (1846) and is in existence today. By this excellent system, which we owe mainly to President Van Buren, the public money is deposited in vaults and safes in the Treasury building at Washington, and in the Sub-Treasuries of New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, Boston, St. Louis, Cincinnati, San Francisco, New Orleans, and Baltimore.

441. The Canadian Rebellion. In 1837 Canada rebelled against England. Many Americans living on the border sympathized with the Canadians and, with the hope of annexing Canada to the United States, a party of seven hundred crossed the boundary and took possession of Navy Island, in the Niagara River. Van Buren promptly forbade interference in the affairs of Canada and sent thither General Scott with an armed force. Harmony was restored, and trouble with England averted.

442. The Mormons. A new religious sect, the Mormons, or "Latter-Day Saints," sprang up about 1830, at Manchester, New York. Its leader, Joseph Smith, the son of a Vermont farmer, claimed to have received from heaven, revelations written in mystic characters on plates of brass. The new sect from the beginning met with great opposition because of its strange teachings. Smith and his followers emigrated to Ohio (1831), but they were soon driven out of the state by the citizens (1838). They later met the same fate in Missouri. In Illinois, where they were kindly received, they built their "Holy City," Nauvoo, and gathered in that vicinity to the number of twenty thousand. Later, however, Smith aroused popular indignation by causing the destruction of a press which had denounced his doctrine of polygamy. In 1844 the Mormon leader and his brother were imprisoned and later shot in a Carthage jail by a mob.

Shortly after, the Mormons, under their new leader, Brigham Young, moved westward (February, 1846), across the frozen Mississippi and the prairies of Iowa, to the Missouri River (June). From here, a company of one hundred and

forty-three men, led by Young, made a difficult journey of over one thousand miles across the mountains to the great Salt Lake (April, 1847). Other parties soon followed and the Mormons thus became the founders of Salt Lake City, Utah. The main reason for the persistent hostility throughout America to the Mormons was their practice of polygamy.

443. Foreign Immigration—Progress of Catholicity. A regular line of steamships had been established between Liverpool and Boston (1830), and later between Liverpool and New York, and immigration poured into the United States. In ten years (1830-1840) more than one hundred thousand Europeans landed in New York alone.

This decade of immigration marks a period of great development in Catholicity throughout the United States. New bishoprics were erected in the West; cathedrals were built; convents, seminaries, colleges, schools, and orphan asylums founded; and a number of Catholic newspapers established. Unfortunately many of the immigrants were loud in expressing their old world national prejudices. The formation of the Holy Alliance; enthusiastic lectures given in Europe for the purpose of encouraging missionary work in the United States; the founding of the Leopoldina Society in Vienna, Austria, for the same purpose—all these activities were persistently misinterpreted as so many attempts of the Catholic powers to destroy the free institutions of America. Bigots of the worst type incited the imagination of Protestants against the Church, and assailed her from pulpit and platform.

Conscience obliged the American Catholics to maintain their own parochial schools, but at the same time they were taxed for the support of the public schools. Accordingly, they demanded a share in the public educational funds. Moreover, they demanded that in the public schools the Protestant Bible should not be forced on Catholic children. The latter demand was granted them in course of time, but they have never been relieved from double taxation.

444. Political Parties. The country was now divided into three parties :

- (a) the Whig (National-Republican), which had gained greatly in strength, as it had been re-enforced by adherents from the South who opposed Jackson's views on the question of nullification;
- (b) the Democratic party;
- (c) the Anti-slavery, or Liberty party, an outgrowth of the abolition movement. The principles of its platform were that each state should have the right to regulate slavery within its boundary, and that Congress should abolish slavery in the territories and in the District of Columbia, and admit no more slave states into the Union.

The Democrats and the Whigs in their party platforms endorsed the cause of the immigrants.

The Nativists and bigots (1841) formed a new party called the Native Americans. They demanded that

- (a) twenty-one years' residence be made a condition of citizenship;
- (b) no one could become an official of the government except a native American;
- (c) there be no union of Church and State;
- (d) no Bible be taught in the schools; and
- (e) "Encroachments of Popery" be opposed.

This party sorely afflicted the Church, but its collapse was as rapid as its rise.

445. Van Buren Becomes Unpopular. The people laid all the blame for the hard times on Van Buren and his party, and the president became more and more unpopular. The numerous cases of mismanagement and fraud which now came to light, the effects of arbitrary removals and partisan appointments, the financial panic, all of which were really the result of the Jackson administration, were ascribed to the policy of

the Democratic party; while Van Buren came to be looked upon as indifferent to the sufferings of the people and as taking care only of the government's money (by the Independent Treasury Act). The people were determined to turn the "Little Magician" out of office.



A WESTERN HOME OF THE PERIOD

CHAPTER XXV

THE HARRISON-TYLER ADMINISTRATION

WHIG—1841-1845

446. Harrison and Tyler Are Elected. In this election of 1840 William Harrison, the Whig "Log Cabin Candidate," was elected President by a majority of one hundred and seventy-four votes over Van Buren, the Democratic nominee. John Tyler was chosen Vice-president.

The campaign of 1840 stands out in marked contrast to all preceding ones because of its appeals to the passions of the multitude. For months the people gave themselves up to noisy and unreasoning partisanship. "Down with Van Burenism!" was the cry. The contemptuous statement of a Democratic editor that Harrison would be more in his element in his log cabin, drinking hard cider, and skinning "coons" than in the White House, was promptly taken up by the Whigs. In their outdoor meetings and long processions, a log cabin on wheels, containing barrels of cider and live "coons," was always a conspicuous object, while "Tippecanoe and Tyler too" became the striking watchword. At a Democratic meeting, held in New York (1835), in the midst of a scene of contest and confusion, the lights were suddenly extinguished. Prepared for the emergency the men of the opposition had provided themselves with candles and locofoco matches; hence the name Locofocos, as applied to a faction of the Democratic party.

Harrison (1773-1841), a native of Virginia, and the son of Benjamin Harrison, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was the hero of Tippecanoe and of the victory on the Thames (1812). He had been Governor of Indiana Territory and had served in turn as Representative and Senator in the

United States Congress. Yet he had not been considered a national statesman in any sense. He was, however, earnest and straightforward, and a man of the people. For a number of years he had taken no part in public life; in fact, at the time of his election he was attending to the affairs of his farm in Ohio.

447. Work Confronting the New Administration—Harrison Dies. As may be inferred from the events of the last presidency, Harrison assumed the duties of office under trying conditions. Both government and people were in real distress. An extra session of Congress was necessary to devise measures of relief as speedily as possible. Henry Clay had prepared a list of measures which included:

- (a) the repeal of the Independent Treasury Act;
- (b) the establishment of a new national bank;
- (c) the raising of a temporary loan; and,
- (d) the laying of permanent tariff duties.

The excitement and fatigue of the campaign and the difficulties attendant upon dealing with a mad rush of office seekers proved too much for even Harrison's vigorous and toughened frame. He died suddenly, just one month after his inauguration, in his sixty-ninth year.

448. Embarrassment of the Whig Party. The office of President now fell to Tyler. Thus, for the first time in the history of our country, the Vice-president succeeded to the presidency upon the death of his chief. The Whigs found themselves in a novel and most embarrassing situation. Instead of a President who was a real Whig, they had one who was in truth a Democrat, except in a few particulars. Tyler for a time, however, retained Harrison's cabinet, which was made up of loyal Whigs, led by the great Whig champion, Daniel Webster, as Secretary of State.

449. Clay's Program in Congress. Though Clay had serious misgivings concerning the new President, he nevertheless came forward with his program, and a bill repealing the Inde-

pendent Treasury Act was passed without difficulty. Two bank bills in succession were introduced and passed both houses of Congress. It was now that Tyler proved himself no Whig. He promptly vetoed both bills on constitutional grounds, and the Whigs had not the necessary two-thirds vote to pass it over his veto. The Whig leaders were furious and every member of the cabinet resigned, with the exception of Webster, who remained to complete a negotiation begun with Great Britain.

The immediate needs of the Treasury were provided for by a loan, and a new tariff measure, which increased the duties, was passed (1842), but not until after two other tariff bills had been vetoed by the President. Though the Whig program for the most part had been carried out, all efforts to carry the bank measure proved futile, and the breach between the President and his party became open. Clay resigned from the Senate.

450. Webster-Ashburton Treaty. By an agreement between Webster and Lord Ashburton, a treaty was signed (1842) at Washington, by which:

- (a) the long disputed boundary line between Maine and Canada was fixed, and the line as far west as the Lake of the Woods likewise defined;
- (b) our fishing rights in British waters were renewed;
- (c) each nation (Great Britain and the United States) was to keep an armed squadron cruising off the African coast in order to suppress the slave trade;
- (d) terms for the extradition of criminals were agreed upon.

451. Dorr's Rebellion. Rhode Island was still governed by its colonial charter. Under it no man was allowed to vote unless he held real estate worth one hundred and thirty-four dollars, or property renting for seven dollars a year, or was the eldest son of such a "freeman." An attempt of the people to secure a more liberal state constitution (1842) ended in the so-called Dorr Rebellion. The "people's party," headed by -

Thomas W. Dorr, proceeded to seize the state property by force and to set up a government under a new constitution. Tyler sent United States troops into the state to uphold the old government. Dorr was convicted and sentenced to imprisonment for life, but was eventually pardoned. Later a more liberal constitution was adopted.

452. Anti-Rent Trouble. The large estates, or manors which had been created during the early history of New York had by this time increased greatly in value. Some of the tenants (at first only those on the Van Rensselaer patroonship) refused to pay their rent. Furthermore, (1844) they tarred and feathered those of their fellow-tenants who paid their rents, and resisted and even killed the officers sent to serve warrants on them. Order was ultimately restored by the state militia and by the judicious measures of the governor. In time, most of the landed estates were sold to the tenants.

453. The First Electric Telegraph. Samuel F. B. Morse, after four years of effort, finally received from Congress a grant of thirty thousand dollars for the purpose of erecting an experimental telegraph line between Baltimore and Washington (forty miles). The first message, "What hath God wrought," proved the success of an invention which today covers the United States like a network. The first public message was the announcement of the nomination of James K. Polk for the presidency by a Democratic convention.

454. Native American Riots. The native American party provoked a dreadful riot in Philadelphia (1844). An army of ruffians, hounded on by pulpit harangues of fanatical ministers, destroyed two Catholic churches, a house of the Sisters of Charity, the valuable library of the Augustinian Fathers, and a number of private dwellings occupied by Catholics.

A similar riot in New York was prevented by the firmness of Bishop Hughes, the champion of Catholicity and Catholic education in the state. Through the influence of his fiery eloquence, the New York Catholics publicly declared that if the

laws of the state would not protect their lives and property, they would know how to defend themselves; and thus they cowed the bigots.

During the agitation of the "School Question" (1841) Bishop Hughes again, with matchless ability, defended the Catholic side in the Legislature. When this body denied him justice, he influenced the votes of his flock at the polls to such an extent as to convince the politicians that the Catholics were no longer to be trifled with or despised.

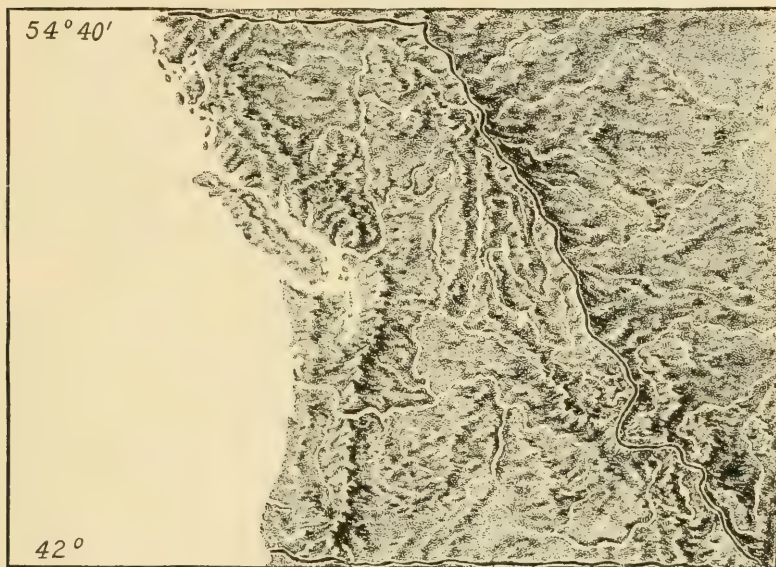
It is well to note here that the system of education against which the Catholics protested (1841) was more than insidiously dangerous. Not merely were the textbooks used, replete with sneers and libels against the Church, but the teachers, by their explanations, imparted additional authority to the calumnies.

455. The Annexation of Texas and the Occupation of Oregon Become Party Issues. Texas had applied for admission into the Union during Van Buren's administration, but the President did not favor its annexation. The matter was again urged during Tyler's administration; Calhoun, the slavery advocate, accepted the office of Secretary of State for the express purpose of carrying out his project of adding this new slave territory to the South. The question now became the leading issue in the presidential campaign of the year. There was much opposition in the North to the admission of Texas, partly because it threatened to involve the country in war with Mexico, and partly because it would increase the area of slavery. On these grounds Clay, though in favor of annexation, opposed immediate action.

A treaty (1818) with Great Britain had left the Oregon country for ten years to joint occupancy, and another treaty made by the United States, Great Britain, and Russia had fixed the parallel of $54^{\circ} 40'$ as the boundary line between the Oregon territory and Alaska. Meanwhile about twelve thousand Americans had settled in Oregon, and they naturally demanded a

settlement of the boundary and an end of joint occupancy. Soon this matter also became a party measure.

The platform of the Democratic party now included the annexation of Texas and the re-occupation of Oregon. It claimed that the annexation of Texas, which was slave soil, could be offset by the acquisition of the whole of Oregon, which was free soil; hence, the Democratic campaign cries were: "The



THE OREGON COUNTRY

annexation of Texas." "The whole of Oregon or none," "Fifty-four forty or fight."

The missionaries were among the first Americans to find their way to the Oregon country. Through the Canadian fur trading posts a number of them, among whom were Fathers Blanchet and Demers, came from Montreal to Oregon and established many missions. Two years later the youthful and

saintly Father De Smet, the famous Jesuit missionary of Florissant, Missouri, set out from the Missouri River with a large party of Oregon-bound emigrants, and founded (1841) the first of his many missions among the Flathead Indians. Not long after, he brought from Europe to the Oregon missions four priests and six sisters of Notre Dame of Namur. The sisters at once opened a school for girls. So rapid was the progress of the Catholic Church in Oregon that Father Blanchet was soon appointed bishop (1843).

456. New States. Tyler, foreseeing the outcome of the presidential campaign, urged the annexation of Texas. Three days before the expiration of his term a resolution annexing it to the United States as a slave state (twenty-eighth state) passed Congress, and was immediately signed by the President (1845). Florida had been admitted into the Union the same year as the twenty-seventh state, with slavery.

CHAPTER XXVI

JAMES POLK'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRAT—1845-1849

457. Polk and Dallas Are Elected. The nominating conventions of both Whigs and Democrats met in Baltimore, a few weeks apart. The Democrats, after several preliminary votes for three or four prominent candidates, eventually turned to a comparatively unknown man, James K. Polk, of Tennessee. He is termed the first "dark horse" in American politics, because he had not been publicly mentioned before the convention. The Whigs nominated their great leader, Henry Clay, who had twice been defeated. The Whigs had undoubtedly chosen the far more brilliant candidate, but the Democratic platform was more in accordance with the policy of the people at large. It promised not only the immediate annexation of Texas, of which the South was in favor, but also the occupancy of Oregon, which pleased the North. The election of 1844, therefore, resulted in the election of Polk. George M. Dallas of Pennsylvania was elected Vice-president.

James K. Polk (1795-1849) was a native of North Carolina. He was successively lawyer, congressman and governor of his state, but was in no wise an eminent or brilliant man. In private life, his standards of honor were high, but his public career was marred by questionable dealings with Mexico. He was, nevertheless, a man of staunch character, not unlike Jackson, his intimate friend. No sooner had he been inaugurated than he proceeded with much vigor to carry out his party's policy.

458. Polk's Program. Polk was elected mainly to effect the annexation of Texas, but he found this task performed before

he came into office. He at once determined upon four measures, all of which, with a Democratic majority in Congress, he carried out successfully :

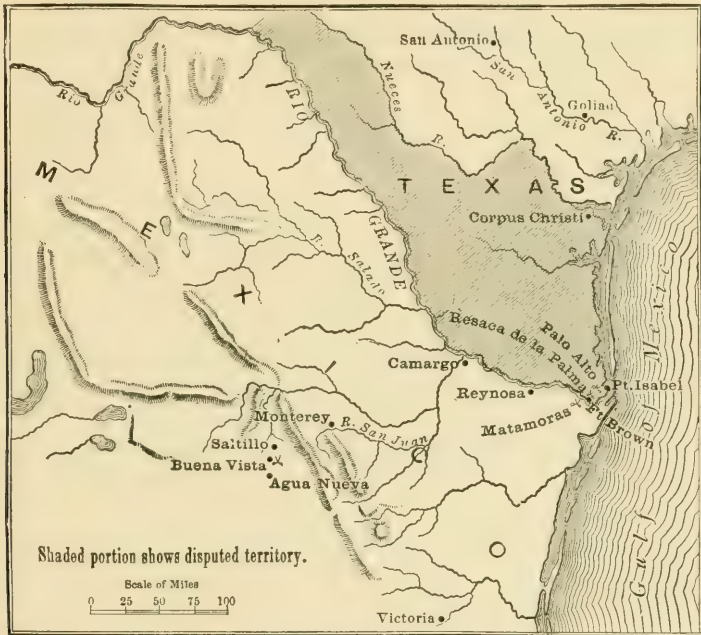
- (a) the readjustment of the tariff, which was reduced by the enactment of the Walker Tariff, named after its author who was Secretary of the Treasury. By this tariff luxuries were to be taxed from forty to one hundred per cent, and iron, wool, and other ordinary manufactures thirty per cent ; besides this, there was an extended free list ;
- (b) the Independent Treasury was re-established (1846) ;
- (c) the settlement of the Oregon boundary dispute by a treaty with Great Britain (1846), which provided that the line of 49° (the boundary from the Lake of the Woods to the crest of the Rocky Mountains) be extended through the Oregon country to the Pacific ;
- (d) the acquisition of California by war with Mexico.

459. Pretexts for War with Mexico—War Declared. A boundary dispute between Texas and Mexico was the pretext for our war with Mexico. When Texas was still claimed by the United States as a part of the Louisiana Purchase, the Rio Grande was considered her southern and western boundary, but when it was a part of one of the states of Mexico, the Nueces River formed its boundary limits. President Polk, siding with the Texans, claimed the country as far west as the Rio Grande, and ordered General Zachary Taylor (April, 1846) to occupy the disputed territory.

The Mexicans crossed the Rio Grande and attacked the Americans. Shortly before this, Mexico had refused to receive our minister. Polk promptly informed Congress, "Mexico has refused to receive our minister, has passed the boundary of the United States, has invaded our territory, and has shed American blood upon American soil." Congress, adopting the assertions of the President without any inquiry into their truth, affirmed (May 13, 1846) that the action of the Republic

of Mexico was a declaration of war against the United States. It at once voted money supplies, and called for fifty thousand volunteers.

Calhoun, in the South, and the Whigs in the North, especially the people of New England and the anti-slavery men, strongly opposed war and loudly denounced Polk and his orders. Unfortunately, it appears that our government was will-



ing to settle the Oregon boundary dispute by compromise with Great Britain, a strong nation, while it enforced by violence the whole of its claim against Mexico, a weak nation.

General Grant, himself a captain in the American army of invasion, wrote later that he considered the Mexican war "one of the most unjust ever waged by a stronger against a weaker nation. . . . We got our punishment in the most san-

guinary and expensive war of modern times (Civil War).” The feeling of New England concerning the war found witty and suitable expression in Lowell’s “Biglow Papers,” a few lines of which read as follows:

They just want this Californy
So’s to lug new slave states in;
To abuse ye, and to scorn ye,
An’ to plunder ye like sin.

460. Taylor’s Campaign. Taylor, who had started out from Corpus Christi (May), on the mouth of the Nueces, attacked and defeated the Mexicans at Palo Alto and again at Resaca de la Palma. He then took Matamoras, after a bloody siege, and by September had pushed on into Mexico. He next stormed the famous city of Monterey and, after a desperate fight of three days captured it from the Mexicans. After this victory, he went to Buena Vista, whence the best part of his army was withdrawn by General Scott, who, as chief commander, had been sent to Mexico to carry out another part of the plan of invasion. Santa Anna, the Mexican commander, knowing of Taylor’s weakened condition, attacked him at Buena Vista (February, 1847). A desperate battle, won by the American force of five thousand against the Mexican force of twelve thousand, was the result. Santa Anna immediately hurried off to attack Scott, who was expected at Vera Cruz. Whittier immortalizes the heroic charity of the Mexican women on the occasion of the Buena Vista battle, in his “Angels of Buena Vista,” of which the following is an extract:

Whispered low the dying soldier, pressed her hand, and faintly smiled;
Was that pitying face his mother’s? Did she watch beside her child?
All his stranger words with meaning her woman’s heart supplied;
With her kiss upon his forehead, “Mother!” murmured he, and died.

“A bitter curse upon them, poor boy, who led thee forth
From some gentle, sad-eyed mother, weeping lonely in the North!”
Spake the mournful Mexic woman, as she laid him with her dead,
And turned to soothe the living, and bind the wounds which bled.

Sink, O night, among the mountains! let the cool, gray shadows fall;
Dying brothers, fighting demons, drop the curtain over all!
Through the thick'ning winter twilight, wide apart the battle rolled,
In its sheath the saber rested, and the cannon's lips grew cold.

But the noble Mexic women still their holy task pursued,
Through that long, dark night of sorrow, worn and faint, and lacking food;
Over weak and suffering brothers with a tender care they hung,
And the dying foemen blessed them in a strange and Northern tongue.

461. Plan of the War—The United States Claims New Mexico and California. The plan of the war as arranged by General Scott embraced an attack upon the northern part of Mexico (New Mexico and California), an assault upon the Mexican capital, and a naval attack upon the Pacific coast.

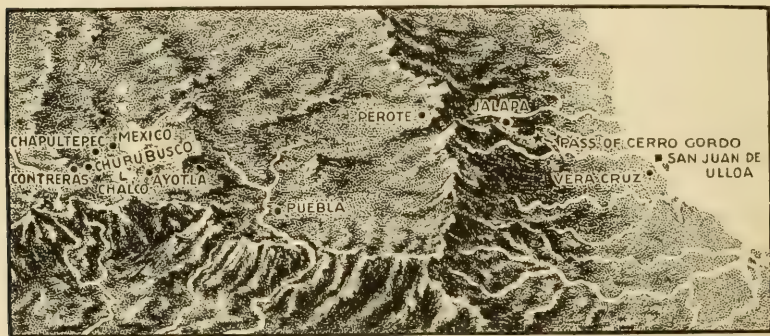
While Taylor was winning his victories in northeastern Mexico, General Stephen W. Kearny, with an army of two thousand men, conquered New Mexico and proclaimed it United States territory. He started out (June, 1846) from Fort Leavenworth, on the Missouri, in Kansas, traveled a distance of nine hundred miles over the mountains of Colorado to the Rio Grande River, and thence down to Santa Fe, which place he took without a struggle. Kearny next proceeded westward to take possession of California, but that country had already been conquered by the joint action of John C. Fremont on land, and a fleet under Commodore Stockton on the Pacific. Three or four hundred American settlers already occupied this region.

Thus the whole of the country south of Oregon had fallen into the hands of the Americans.

John C. Fremont, called the "Pathfinder of the Rocky Mountains," had been sent before the outbreak of the war (1845), with a small force of men to explore the then almost unknown region between the Great Salt Lake and the Pacific. For some years he was thus employed, particularly with a view to the discovery of the best overland route between the two oceans. He crossed the continent many times, often suffering intensely

from cold, hunger, and Indian attacks. On hearing that Mexico was at war with the United States, he hastened into California, drove the Mexicans from their settlement on the Sacramento, and then, acting with Stockton's naval force, occupied, first San Francisco, and then Los Angeles.

462. General Scott's Campaign. General Scott, supported by Commodore Perry's fleet, landed at Vera Cruz with the intention of taking the city of Mexico. After a nine days' bombardment, the Mexicans, under Santa Anna, surrendered Vera Cruz (March, 1847). Scott then began his two-hundred-mile



THE ADVANCE TOWARD MEXICO

march up the mountains toward the City of Mexico, the ancient capital of the Aztecs. It was just three hundred and twenty-eight years since Cortez, with his little band, had taken the same route from the same point and for the same purpose. Scott again defeated Santa Anna at the mountain pass of Cerro Gordo (April, 1847); captured the beautiful city of Pueblo (May), and then pushed forward to within view of the capital, eight thousand feet above the sea. The Americans now took in rapid succession (August) the strongholds and batteries guarding Mexico City. Scott, with his triumphant army, marched into the city (September 18, 1847), and hoisted the stars and stripes in the ancient city of the Montezumas.

463. Mexico Surrenders—The Treaty of Peace. In less than two years a series of desperate battles ended in an unbroken victory for our arms. The Mexicans, with their army helpless, and their government broken up, were compelled to submit, and sign a treaty of peace (1848) at Guadalupe Hidalgo. By this treaty, Mexico gave to the United States all territory north of the Rio Grande and Gila Rivers, which, besides Texas, comprises New Mexico, California, Nevada, Utah, Arizona, and parts of Colorado and Wyoming—in all, nearly one million square miles. The United States paid Mexico fifteen million dollars and, further, gave three million dollars to American citizens who had claims against Mexico. This seemed a great outlay to many people, who declared that, for the United States, "Texas" meant simply "taxes." In the Mexican War many prominent officers of both armies in our Civil War received their first military schooling—Grant, McClellan, Lee, Beauregard, Jackson, Hooker, Longstreet, Buell, Johnston, Davis, etc.

464. The Wilmot Proviso. While the armies were gaining their hard-fought victories in Mexico, Congress was harassed by the slavery question. During a debate on a bill to appropriate a sum of money for the purpose of negotiating peace with Mexico, David Wilmot, a northern anti-slavery man, offered an amendment to the appropriation bill, the so-called Wilmot Proviso, which provided that slavery be forever excluded from the lands to be acquired from Mexico. Naturally the whole South rose in opposition. The bill was lost in the Senate; but it made the question of slavery in the Mexican cession, the principal issue in the campaign of 1848.

The Democrats were divided on the question. The northern anti-slavery Democrats favored the Wilmot Proviso; the southern pro-slavery Democrats opposed it. The party platform avoided the question altogether, and though the Democratic majority was in the south this party nominated a northern non-slaveholder, Lewis Cass, of Michigan. Cass, in a letter, sought the favor of the southern faction of his party by ad-

vocating the so-called "popular" or "squatter sovereignty," according to which the people of the territories were to decide for themselves the question of slavery.

The "squatter-sovereignty" policy of Cass offended many of the anti-slavery Democrats, who eventually withdrew from their party convention. The Whigs, most numerous in the North, nominated for President a southern man, a slaveholder, General Zachary Taylor, the hero of Buena Vista. This party was also divided, for the southern section opposed the Wilmot Proviso, while the northern greatly favored it. Hence, the Whig, like the Democratic platform, also avoided any mention of the Wilmot Proviso question, even though it was of vital interest in the campaign. Because of this, many of the Whigs separated from their party, joined the Democrats, who had withdrawn from their party, and formed the "Free-Soil" party, which adopted as watchword "Free soil, free speech, free labor, and free men." Joined by the Liberty party, the Free-soilers nominated Martin Van Buren for the presidency. Thus, we see that at this election even the two old parties were beginning to break up on the slavery question.

465. The Discovery of Gold in California. About this time a magical change was taking place in California. But a few days before the peace of Guadalupe (January, 1848), gold was discovered at Coloma, on the fork of the American River in the valley of the Sacramento, about one hundred miles north-east of San Francisco. James W. Marshall, a millwright in the employ of Colonel Sutter, a Swiss settler, found a number of kernels of metal which were about the size of grains of wheat; upon test they proved to be solid gold. The discovery of the precious metal was for a time kept secret; but the workers in the mill soon learned of it, and the fact was announced in a San Francisco paper. From all parts of the Union and, indeed, from all parts of the world, eager gold-seekers, afterwards styled "forty-niners," flocked over the plains, across the isthmus or around the Horn, to the gold

fields. By the autumn of 1849, California contained nearly one hundred thousand people, and San Francisco sprang up, as if by magic, from a little village to a city of twenty thousand. This large population was composed of all sorts and conditions of men, who were at first governed only by vigilance committees and lynch laws. Before long, however, the people organized themselves in an orderly way into a state and adopted a constitution, by which slavery was forbidden. Even before a code of laws could be framed for the territory, the Califor-



A NIGHT ON THE CALIFORNIA TRAIL

nians asked to be admitted to the Union (1850). The Senate, however, rejected the application because of the clause in the territorial constitution which prohibited slavery.

The discovery of gold in California gave to the United States a firm possession of the Pacific coast by rapidly peopling the California wilderness. It also caused the establishment of new lines of steamships, new railroad routes and new markets, for after the gold mines became less profitable, the people set about the cultivation of the land and the raising of sheep and

cattle. California later became the chief fruit-growing region of the United States.

466. Two New States. During Polk's administration, two non-slaveholding states were admitted to the Union: Iowa (1846), the twenty-ninth state, and the fourth formed from the territory gained by the Louisiana Purchase; and Wisconsin (1848), the thirtieth state, and the fifth and last formed out of the Northwest Territory.

467. Indian Missions in Mexico and California. New Mexico had been explored and the natives christianized by Spanish missionaries more than three hundred years (1539) before the territory had become a part of the United States. So rapid was the progress of these early missions, that within the space of a few years twenty-seven stations were established, many of which possessed large churches. The Indian converts, who were numbered by thousands, had learned to read and write, and had adopted the customs of civilization. Though the hostility of pagan tribes and the oppression of civil authority sadly harassed the prosperity of these Catholic Indian missions, they have never been entirely suppressed.

The mission of San Francisco was founded contemporaneously with the declaration of American independence (1776). The Franciscans, under their superior, Father Serra, established San Diego as their first mission (1769). The founding of Monterey followed (1770); then in rapid succession, San Francisco (1776), Santa Clara (1777), San Jose (1779), Los Angeles (1781), Santa Barbara (1781), and many others, until an unbroken chain of missions, more than twenty in number, linked San Diego with San Francisco. Under the supervision of the zealous sons of St. Francis of Assissi, the roving savages were soon won for the Church and civilization, and were ultimately transformed into orderly, industrious, and expert farmers, masons, or weavers. At one time the Catholic missions numbered about thirty thousand Indians, whose thrift and prosperity were attested by their possession of over four

thousand head of cattle, sixty-two thousand horses, and more than three hundred thousand sheep. Many of the missionaries had been noted in Spain as men of culture, as soldiers, engineers, artists, lawyers, and physicians, before they wore the humble garb of their Order, but they did not scorn to labor with their charges in the fields, in brickyards, at the forge, or in the mills.

By a decree of the Mexican Congress, the Indian missions



THE CHAPEL OF THE SAN GABRIEL MISSION

were eventually made state property. The converts were thus scattered, and within five years, the number of Catholic Indians was reduced from thirty thousand to four thousand, and when California became a territory of the United States only a few remains of the once prosperous missions could be traced. The Jesuits early began (1697) the work of spreading the gospel among the native Indians of Lower California, and continued this work until the society was finally expelled from the Spanish domains (1767).

468. The Nation's Patroness. America, from the very date of its discovery, was loyally devoted to the Mother of God, and in (1846) the Sixth Council of Baltimore, by its first act, solemnly chose Mary the Immaculate, as patroness of the Catholic Church in the United States.

CHAPTER XXVII

THE TAYLOR-FILLMORE ADMINISTRATION

WHIG—1849-1853

469. Taylor and Fillmore Are Elected. At the election of 1848, Zachary Taylor of Louisiana, the Whig nominee, was elected as the twelfth President by a majority of thirty-six votes over Lewis Cass of Michigan, the Democratic candidate. Millard Fillmore of New York was chosen Vice-president.

Zachary Taylor (1784-1850) was a native of Virginia. He fought in the War of 1812, in the Black Hawk War, and gained great fame in the Mexican War. He was, on the whole, more of a soldier than a politician. In fact, he took little interest in politics and had not even voted for forty years. He was a plain, straightforward man, and when nominated for the presidency, he declared that, if elected, he would be the President of no party or faction, but of the entire nation. Though a slaveholder, he did not desire to see the system extended to the territories where the people opposed it. He was much loved by his soldiers, who called him "Old Rough and Ready."

Millard Fillmore (1800-1874) was a native of New York. He practiced law and later became a Congressman from his state. He supported Clay's compromise measures and won for himself strong opposition in the North by favoring the Fugitive Slave Law.

470. Able Statesmen in Congress. The thirty-first Congress was noted for two things: in the Senate for the last time were heard the familiar voices of the great triumvirate—Webster, Clay, and Calhoun—all of whom had for forty years figured in every important political movement. Ready to supplant these

famous leaders were a number of young men of a new generation. William H. Seward of New York, Salmon P. Chase of Ohio, Jefferson Davis of Mississippi, Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois, and Charles Sumner of Massachusetts, now gained prominence in political life. In fact, never before had there been such a group of able statesmen in the Senate.

At this time, there were fifteen free and fifteen slave states. There was no other slave territory to enter the Union, and if California were admitted as a free state, the northerners would have a majority in the Senate; as it was, they already controlled the House of Representatives.

471. Debates on the Extension of Slavery in the Territories.

When General Taylor was inaugurated President, the North and the South were already engaged in passionate disputes over the slavery problem; from the founding of the government to the Civil War, the year 1850 was the darkest and most threatening. The question of slavery, especially its extension to the great Southwest, was like a wedge, forcing the North and the South farther and farther apart. The points in dispute between the two sections were chiefly the following:

- (a) the North wanted California admitted as a free-soil state; the South would not consent, unless the Missouri Compromise line (the parallel of 36 degrees 30 minutes) was extended to the Pacific.
- (b) the northerners insisted that slavery be abolished in the District of Columbia; the southerners complained that the Fugitive Slave Law of 1793 was not enforced in the free states;
- (c) the North demanded that there be no more slave states and no more slave territory;
- (d) Texas claimed the part of New Mexico lying east of the Rio Grande. This met with strenuous opposition from the North.

472. The Compromise of 1850. Clay at this perilous time once more came forward as peacemaker, and proposed the

measure known as the "Compromise of 1850," or the "Omnibus Bill," because of the many points it contained. Its chief provisions were:

- (a) that California be admitted as a free state to favor the North;
- (b) that New Mexico and Utah be organized as territories without provision as to slavery—to appease the South;
- (c) that Texas be paid ten million dollars to give to the Federal government her claim on New Mexico—to appease the South;
- (d) that the slave trade (not slavery) be abolished in the District of Columbia—to please the North.

During a period of seven months the Omnibus Bill was the one great topic for debate in Congress and for discussion in the press and by the people of the entire country. As might be expected, the compromise measures occasioned scenes of intense excitement in Congress. The debates that followed in the Senate were brilliant.

Clay, now a venerable man of seventy-three, physically weak, himself a slaveholder, made an earnest appeal for peace and compromise; his plea was for "keeping the Union together in one family, in harmony and concord," that the "gaping wounds of the country might be healed." For two days he swayed the audience, which filled the Senate chamber to overflowing.

John C. Calhoun, the great champion of states' rights, was so feeble that his speech had to be read for him by a friend. Wrapped in a cloak, his long white hair hanging down the sides of his pale, emaciated face, the great leader of the South sat in his chair motionless, statue-like, and, with the hand of death upon him, listened to his own words of appeal and warning to the North in behalf of his beloved South. He demanded an equal division of territory between the two sections; more effective laws for the return of fugitive slaves, and the complete and lasting cessation of slavery agitation; and closed

with the words, "if you of the North will not do this, say so, and let our Southern states agree to separate and part in peace." Though Calhoun wished to preserve the Union, he looked upon it as a union of a northern section and a southern section, rather than a union of states.

Webster, in his "Seventh of March Speech," which he himself regarded as the most important of his life, expressed his sincere love for the Union, and denounced both the northern and the southern agitators. He placed the chief blame, however, on the anti-slavery men, and they were greatly disappointed to find their famous champion seemingly deserting their cause. Webster felt that the great duty of the hour was to save the Union, not to oppose slavery. The Union could be best preserved, he thought, by Clay's compromise bill. Though Webster's influence helped not only to secure the compromise, but also to postpone the awful war for a decade of years, he never again regained his former political prestige. (Read Whittier's "Ichabod.")

William H. Seward of New York and Salmon P. Chase of Ohio now took the place of Webster as leaders of the anti-slavery party. They both opposed the compromise, and Seward startled the slavery advocates by declaring that "a higher law than the Constitution, the law of God and of reason, made the territories free." Seward's "higher law" doctrine was wrongly interpreted by his opponents as meaning that "the law of God and of reason" should always be superior to the Constitution. He, however, meant to say that the law of God and of reason, as well as the Constitution, condemned slavery.

Jefferson Davis and Stephen A. Douglas took the place of the dying Calhoun in behalf of the South, and were, like Seward and Chase, much more outspoken than the older statesman had been.

473. Taylor's Death. The debate went on day after day. Separate provisions of Clay's compromise were passed; but

while the question was still being considered, Taylor suddenly died, after being in office only sixteen months. Vice-president Fillmore, an advocate of the compromise, now became President, and signed the last of the bills, the Fugitive Slave Law (September, 1850).

474. California Becomes a State—The Pony Express. The “pony express” carried to California the news that she was admitted to the Union as a free state. The pony express established a means of communication between the East and the Pacific coast. Stations some twenty miles apart were erected all the way from the Missouri River to the Sacramento, a distance of about two thousand miles. A messenger mounted on a fast pony set out across the plains to the first station, whence he took another horse and again sped away toward the next station. At every third station another rider took the mail. Eight days were required to traverse the distance and frequently riders perished in the wintry blizzards or were killed by the Indians. The cost of sending a letter by the pony express was five dollars, which charge, however, was soon reduced one-half. Some years later, stage coaches were used along similar routes.

475. The Fugitive Slave Law. The last of the measures included in the Omnibus Bill having been adopted, a wave of relief swept over the country. The people, with Clay, hoped that harmony and good will would once more prevail, as after the Missouri Compromise. But, alas, these hopes were not to be realized; the Fugitive Slave Law stood in the way. This law:

- (a) gave United States officers power to turn over a colored man to anyone who claimed the negro as an escaped slave, even if the slave in question had been free for a number of years;
- (b) denied the negro the right of trial by jury;
- (c) demanded that all citizens, if called upon by officers, should aid in securing the return of a fugitive slave;

(d) imposed a fine and imprisonment on anyone who harbored a fugitive or prevented his capture. The execution of this law brought with it the constant invasion of the northern states by "slave-catchers," or "man-hunters," and continually kept before the people of the North the most hateful and barbarous aspects of slavery. This law did more toward rousing the moral sentiment of that section than the arguments of the Abolitionists had done in a score of years.

476. Personal Liberty Laws—Underground Railroad. The North, finding the Fugitive Slave Law so extremely odious, determined not to return runaway slaves, but rather to protect and assist them to escape. Many of the northern states passed "Personal Liberty Laws," which, in essence, really amounted to nullification of the fugitive law, since they did not permit the use of jails for the fugitives, forbade judges and officers to aid in the return of runaways; granted to slaves the right of trial by jury; and punished attempts to seize and return free negroes.

Many slaves, by means of the so-called "Underground Railroad," or secret routes, were helped to escape to Canada, or some other place of safety in the North. One of the most famous routes of the Underground Railroad was from Cincinnati to Detroit; another from Baltimore to New York, and thence to Canada or New England.

477. The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty. While the Omnibus Bill was absorbing the attention of the country, the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty was negotiated by John M. Clayton, our Secretary of State, and Bulwer, the British minister to our country. It provided for the joint control by the United States and Great Britain of any ship canal, which should be constructed across the isthmus of either Nicaragua or Panama, and declared that neither nation should establish colonies in Central America. The treaty continued in force until 1901 when it was superseded by the Hay-Pauncefote treaty. The agitation for an

isthmian canal was revived by the rush of population to California after the discovery of gold.

478. Uncle Tom's Cabin. *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, a novel written (1852) by Harriet Beecher Stowe, vividly pictured moral, social, and domestic life under slavery. The story at first came out week by week in an anti-slavery newspaper, but it was later published in book form. Within two years over three hundred thousand copies were sold. The book exerted a powerful anti-slavery influence, and many boys who read *Uncle Tom's Cabin* in 1852 became soldiers in the Civil War.

The novel, however, was defective in style and construction. It did not picture Southern life truthfully and the injustice of some of its presentations has been exposed and condemned. It, nevertheless, did much to liberate the slave, and probably no other novel ever exerted such a strong influence upon the political and civil institutions of a nation.

479. Death of Three Great Men. The nation was soon called upon to lament the death of three distinguished leaders. Calhoun, the great champion of the South, died at Washington, D. C. (March 31, 1850); Clay, one of America's foremost orators and most disinterested patriots, died in the capital (June 28, 1852); and Daniel Webster, the famous leader of the North, and the notable expounder of the Constitution, passed away at Marshfield, Massachusetts (October 24, 1852).

480. Anti-Catholic Attacks—Know-nothingism. The Nativists and other anti-Catholic elements (1852) joined forces with the fugitive German and Italian Revolutionists (1848-1849), and led by the ex-Carmelite Gavazzi, inaugurated a crusade of unparalleled anti-Catholic hatred and strife. When the Papal Nuncio, Monsignore Bedini, landed in New York (1852), Gavazzi traveled through the country, and everywhere set on foot a movement against him. He made charges which no rational man could believe, and which were soon proved to be false.

As a result of these calumnies, the Nuncio, in his prog-

ress through the country, was insulted, abused, burned in effigy, mobbed, and even threatened with assassination. In many places in New England, the anti-Catholic faction, headed by a Boston street preacher, who styled himself the Angel Gabriel, ruthlessly destroyed Catholic churches and expelled peaceful Catholic settlers from their homes.

During this excitement (1852) a network of secret societies sprang up, called the "Order of the Star-Spangled Banner." It started in New York, and because of its extreme secrecy, its members were called Know-nothings. The order advocated chiefly: that the time of residence required for naturalization be twenty-one years; that the Catholic religion be proscribed as a danger to the country; that the Protestant Bible be made the foundation of all common school education. The Know-nothings destroyed many churches, convents, and private houses of Catholics, and shed much Catholic blood. They increased so rapidly that they elected the governors and legislatures of a number of the states. In a few years, however, they became almost extinct, save in Maryland, where they continued to exist for a time. Here they gathered all the ruffians in and around Baltimore and attacked the first northern regiment marching to the front at the beginning of the Civil War, and thus made that city the most lawless of the Union.

The methods of the Know-nothing party were revived in 1894 by the American Protective Association. This was a secret society in the United States, not unlike the Know-nothings, which became a disturbing factor in most of the northern states during the period of 1891-97. Its purpose was indicated clearly enough by its open activity in arranging lectures by "ex-priests," distributing anti-Catholic literature, and opposing the election of Catholics to office. Unlike the Know-nothings, it never constituted a separate political party, but sought to influence existing parties toward selecting candidates friendly to its anti-Catholic views.

481. The First Plenary Council. The First Plenary Council of the Church in the United States, which was assembled in Baltimore by Archbishop Kendrick (1852), was composed of six Archbishops and twenty-six Bishops. It proposed the erection of several new dioceses, urged the importance of Catholic schools, and condemned secret societies, especially the Freemasons.

482. The Campaign of 1852. In the campaign of 1852, the platforms of both of the old parties came out strongly in favor of the Compromise of 1850. The Whigs nominated General Winfield Scott, another hero of the Mexican War; the Democrats, Franklin Pierce of New Hampshire, a second instance of a "dark horse"; and the Free-Soil party, John Parker Hale of New Hampshire.

CHAPTER XXVIII

FRANKLIN PIERCE'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRAT—1853-1857

483. Pierce and King Are Elected. Franklin Pierce of New Hampshire, the Democratic nominee, was elected by a majority of two hundred and twelve votes over the Whig candidate, Winfield Scott. William R. King was elected Vice-president.

The Whig party was overwhelmingly defeated at this election and it practically ceased to exist before the next presidential campaign. This was because of the following facts: there was just then no great question before the people, except the slavery problem, and this was sectional (between the North and South), rather than partisan; the Whigs were held answerable for the odious Compromise Act, including the Fugitive Slave Law, since this act was introduced by a Whig leader and signed by a Whig President, though many of the Democrats had also supported the measures; the southern Whigs felt that they could no longer trust their party on the slavery question. The Free-Soilers humorously declared that the Whigs died of an attempt to swallow the Fugitive Slave Law.

Franklin Pierce (1804-1869) had previously served, first as Representative and then as Senator. He had also been a brigadier-general in the Mexican War. In his inaugural address he said that he would do all he could to carry out the provisions of the Compromise of 1850, and to keep peace on the slavery question. Yet, scarcely twelve months of his presidency had elapsed, when the country was thrown into a most exciting slavery agitation.

484. The Kansas-Nebraska Bill. Senator Douglas, chairman of the committee on territories, introduced the so-called Kan-

sas-Nebraska Bill, which proposed the formation of the two territories of Kansas and Nebraska on the principle of "squatter sovereignty." In other words, he proposed that the settlers decide for themselves whether or not they would have slavery. Douglas's measures practically repealed the Missouri Compromise, and they were violently debated in Congress for nearly five months; they became law, however (1854), by a close vote in both houses and the signature of the President.

The Kansas-Nebraska Bill, however, had many far-reaching results:

- (a) it deprived Congress of its authority over slavery in the territories;
- (b) it occasioned a grave contest over Kansas;
- (c) it revived with renewed bitterness the slavery agitation, or, rather, quoting Sumner, it "set freedom and slavery face to face and bade them grapple."

485. The Race to Kansas for Supremacy. The Kansas-Nebraska act gave rise to a storm of indignation all over the North. The anti-slavery men declared that if the old Missouri Compromise could be swept away, nothing would be sacred enough to stand between slavery and free territory. No sooner was the Kansas-Nebraska act passed, than a race for political supremacy in Kansas was begun by both the pro-slavery and anti-slavery men. Before the year closed each party had planted several settlements in Kansas. The pro-slavery men, or "Border Ruffians," as they were called, settled at Atchison and other points along the Missouri River, while the free-state men, called also "Abolitionists," or "Black Republicans," settled at Lawrence and other places south of the Kansas River. The excitement became intense. Each party was determined to win in the first election for a territorial legislature (1855). The pro-slavery men carried the election by means of fraud and violence, promptly adopted the Constitution of Missouri, which provided for slavery, and added to it laws by which any interference with slavery was to be severely punished.

The free-state settlers, refusing to obey a government which had been established through fraud, met at Topeka and drew up a constitution of their own, which forbade slavery.

Thus Kansas had two rival, hostile governments, each demanding recognition by Congress and the President. It was clear that "squatter sovereignty" could not solve peaceably the slavery question in the territories. The House of Representatives accepted the Topeka, or anti-slavery constitution,



DISPERSING A KANSAS CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION

and voted to admit Kansas as a free state. The Senate, however, did not concur in this action. The conflict in Kansas developed into Civil War, during which the two parties committed so many crimes of violence and bloodshed that no state in the Union, not even those that had been the scene of Indian wars, surpassed Kansas in the fierce strife of its early years; hence, the territory became known as "Bleeding Kansas."

At one time the pro-slavery party of Kansas framed what is known as the "Lecompton Constitution," making Kansas a

slave state without submitting the constitution to a fair vote of the people. It was sent to Washington with an application for the admission of Kansas as a state. Buchanan was about to recommend the admission of Kansas under this constitution, when Douglas came forward and demanded that the constitution should first be submitted to a fair vote of the Kansas people. Douglas, by his noble stand for justice in behalf of the people of Kansas, now gained greatly in the estimation of the North.

486. Filibustering Expeditions—The Ostend Manifesto. The balance between the free and the slave states having been destroyed by the admission of California as a free state, southerners began to covet Cuba, as they had coveted Mexico. A filibustering expedition, led by Narciso Lopez, set out (1851) from New Orleans to secure the island by capture, for the purpose of annexing it with its large slave population to the United States. The scheme ended in disaster and Lopez was executed. A similar filibustering expedition (1854), headed by William Walker, was made to Nicaragua. Walker seized the government and held it for two years, when he was finally overpowered and put to death.

France and Great Britain, because of this filibustering expedition against Cuba, suggested a convention, in which each of the three nations—England, France, and the United States—should disclaim all intention to obtain possession of Cuba. The United States declined to enter the agreement, and later the American ministers to Great Britain, France, and Spain, acting under instructions from the President, met at Ostend, Belgium (1854), to consider the subject of annexing the island. The result was a proclamation, known as the “Ostend Manifesto,” in which was declared: that Cuba should belong to the United States; that the government should offer Spain one hundred and twenty million dollars for the island; and that in case Spain should refuse to sell the island, it should be secured by force.

Spain would not sell the island and Congress would not adopt the policy of taking Cuba by force. Hence, nothing was effected by the "Ostend Manifesto."

487. The Gadsden Purchase. Owing to the inaccuracy of the maps, trouble arose with Mexico in regard to the boundary line. General James Gadsden, our minister to Mexico, at length adjusted matters by negotiating a treaty (1853), by which the United States paid Mexico ten million dollars for the land lying directly south of the Gila River. This territory, which comprised about forty-seven thousand square miles, has since been known as the Gadsden Purchase.

488. Perry's Treaty with Japan. In 1853 Commodore Matthew C. Perry, brother of the hero of Lake Erie, visited Japan, which till then had not admitted foreigners even for the purpose of trade. After a year's waiting, Perry succeeded in making a treaty (1854) by which certain Japanese ports were opened for trade with the United States. As a result of Perry's expedition, Japan, within seven years, made treaties with nearly all the countries of Europe, and began the wonderful development which has marked that nation for the last half-century.

489. First World's Fair in the United States. For the first time in our history, the nations of the world joined the United States (1853) in a great exposition of products in the Crystal Palace, New York. The Crystal Palace was built exclusively of iron and glass, and was visited by thousands from all parts of the world. The exposition tended to show that the United States might soon lead the rest of the world in practical inventions and the manufactures of labor-saving machinery.

490. The Campaign of 1856. At the convention held in Philadelphia (1856), a new party, the National Republican, was formed of anti-slavery Democrats, anti-slavery Whigs, and Free-Soilers. Its platform demanded that Congress should not interfere with slavery where it existed; that Congress should prohibit in the territories "these twin relics of barbarism, polygamy and slavery"; and that Kansas should immediately

be admitted as a free state. J. C. Fremont of California was the presidential nominee of the new party. The Democrats put forth James Buchanan of Pennsylvania, while the remnant of the Whigs (Silver Grays), and the Know-nothings selected Millard Fillmore of New York.

CHAPTER XXIX

JAMES BUCHANAN'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRAT—1857-1861

491. Buchanan and Breckenridge Are Elected. At the election of 1856, James Buchanan, the Democratic nominee, was elected as the fifteenth President by a majority of sixty electoral votes over John C. Fremont, the Republican candidate. John C. Breckenridge of Kentucky was chosen Vice-president.

James Buchanan (1791-1868), a native of Pennsylvania, was sixty-six years old when called to the executive chair. In public life he had served as United States Senator and as minister to Russia and to England. Much was hoped from his election, since he declared in his inaugural address that the object of his administration would be to destroy sectional strife and settle the slavery question. However, the Dred Scott Decision, rendered by the Supreme Court only two days after his inauguration, widened the alarming breach between the anti-slavery and pro-slavery sections of the Union.

492. The Dred Scott Decision. A slave by the name of Dred Scott had lived for some time with his master, an army surgeon, in the free state of Illinois and in the free territory of Minnesota. On returning to Missouri, Dred Scott sued his owner for his freedom, on the ground that his residence on free soil had made him a free man. The case was finally transferred from the State Court to the Supreme Court of the United States, which, through Chief Justice Taney, gave the "Dred Scott Decision." This declared that a negro was not a citizen of the United States, and could not sue in the United States Court; that a slave was not included in the term "person" as used in the Constitution ("no 'person' shall be deprived of

life, liberty, or property without due process of law''), but was only property, and Congress had no more right to exclude this kind of property from the territories than it had to exclude horses, cows, and other chattels. Therefore, slave-owners might take their slaves with them into any territory of the Union without forfeiting authority over them. Five of the eight other judges joined in Taney's opinion. Justices Curtis and McLean alone defended the rights of the negro as a citizen, as well as the power of Congress, to keep slavery out of the territories. Dred Scott was later freed by his master. Taney was bitterly denounced for expressions used in his decision. His statements, however, were not given as his own views about negro rights, but rather as the legal theories prevailing at the time of the Declaration of Independence. He had emancipated his own slaves and provided for their welfare.

The Dred Scott Decision created intense excitement throughout the country. The slaveholders had on their side not only the law, as laid down by the highest court in the land, but also the President, who, weak and wavering, feared to oppose slavery lest the South should secede and destroy the Union, as it was threatening to do.

The decision split the Democratic party in the North. Many of its members joined the Republicans in denouncing the Supreme Court, rejected its decision, and determined to check the spread of slavery in the territories.

493. The Lincoln-Douglas Debates—The Freeport Doctrine. The election of a successor to Senator Douglas in Illinois brought to the front Abraham Lincoln, the Republican candidate for the senatorship against Douglas, who was the Democratic choice. Lincoln challenged (1857) Douglas to a series of seven joint debates, at as many different places, on the following subjects: squatter sovereignty, the Dred Scott Decision, and the extension of slavery into the territories. Both candidates exercised a powerful influence upon the vast audiences which gathered from far and near to hear the great

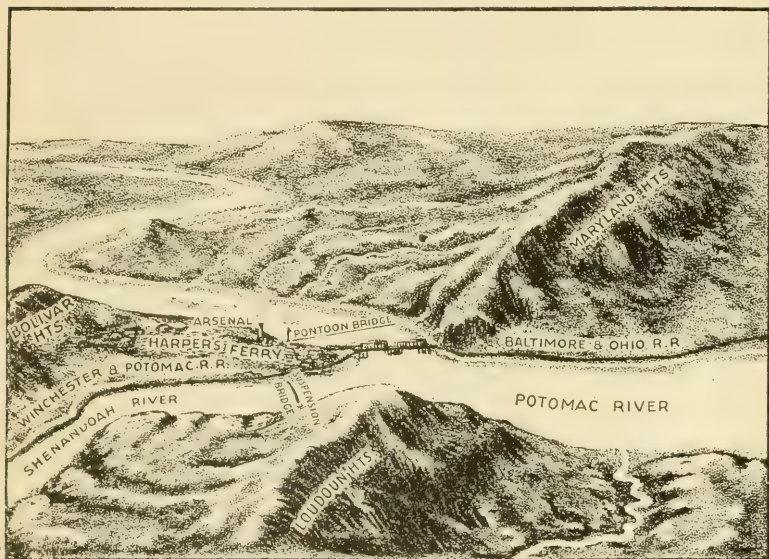
problems of the day discussed by the ablest speakers of Illinois. Douglas, termed the "Little Giant of the West," short and squarely built, spoke in rapid and powerful language and carried his listeners by storm; while Lincoln, styled "Honest Abe," tall, slender, and awkward, by his slow, calm, plain, unpretending, and humorous speech won the hearts of the people.

The most notable of these debates was held at Freeport, where Lincoln asked Douglas four questions, the answers to which prevented Douglas from gaining the support of the southern Democracy for the presidential election two years later. Lincoln forced Douglas to choose between his favorite doctrine of popular sovereignty and the opinion expressed by the justice of the Supreme Court in the Dred Scott case. Douglas tried to reconcile the two in what is known as the Freeport Doctrine, by saying that slavery could not exist in any territory if the people did not make local police regulations for its support, and therefore popular sovereignty would decide whether the territory should have slavery or not. Lincoln showed that slavery could exist without these local regulations, and that popular sovereignty and the Dred Scott Decision were incompatible. The South agreed with Lincoln and abandoned Douglas, although the people of Illinois by a narrow margin re-elected Douglas senator. Lincoln's great speeches and bold stand for the right gave him a national reputation and made him a candidate for the presidency (1860).

494. John Brown's Raid. John Brown, a Free-Soil extremist, collected a raiding party of about twenty men (1859) and suddenly seized the United States arsenal at Harper's Ferry in Virginia, with the avowed purpose of causing an insurrection of the slaves and supplying them with arms from the arsenal. His plan, however, met with complete failure. He was captured, brought to a speedy trial, and hanged. Brown's foolhardy undertaking increased the misunderstanding between the two sections. The South believed that among the northern

Republicans there was on foot a general plan to create a slave insurrection, and began to think of secession and independence. The northern people, for the most part, condemned Brown's course, although they were in sympathy with his opposition to slavery.

495. The Panic of 1857. Shortly after Buchanan's inauguration a great business depression occurred. The discovery of



HARPER'S FERRY AND VICINITY

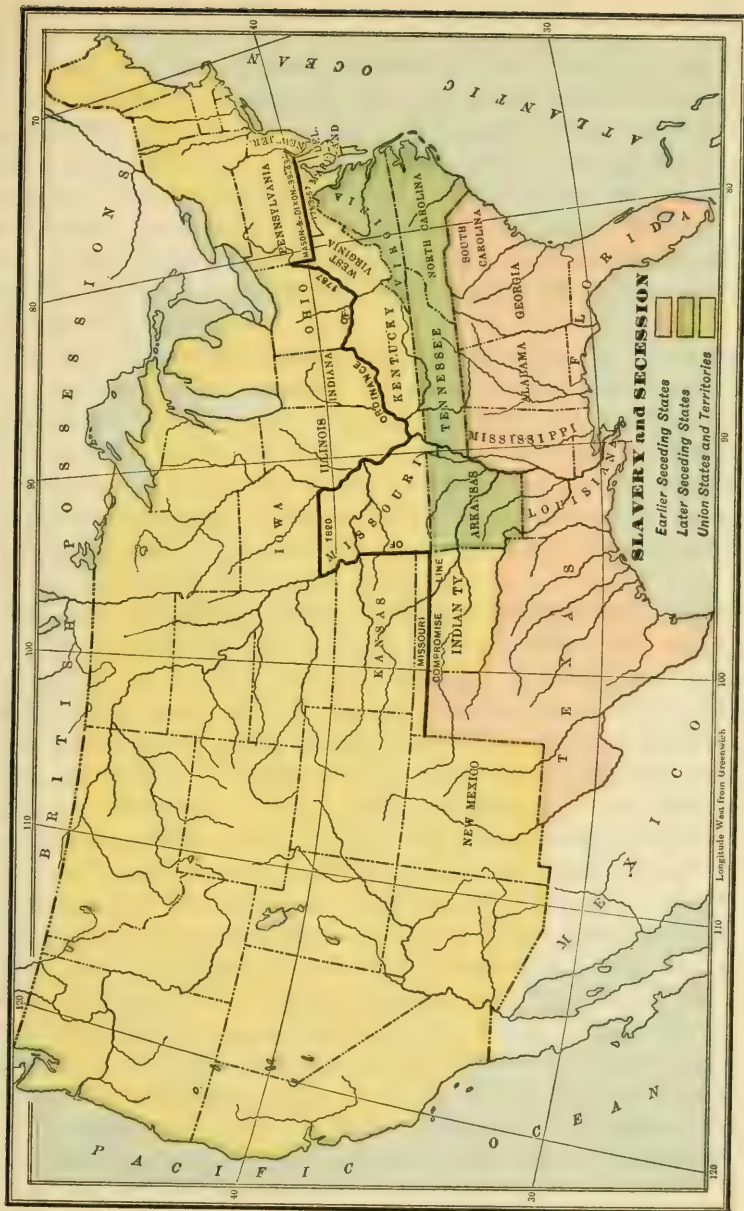
gold in California had increased wealth and stimulated investments in railroads and in manufacturing enterprises. These investments were undertaken on too large a scale and the result was a panic similar to that which the country had passed through twenty years before. Great suffering continued for two years, but later discoveries of gold in California, silver in Nevada, and oil in Pennsylvania, again revived business and restored prosperity.

Three free states were admitted during Buchanan's administration. Minnesota came in as the thirty-second (1858), Oregon as the thirty-third (1859), and Kansas as the thirty-fourth (1861).

496. The Campaign of 1860. The thirty-three (1860) states now composing the Union entered upon the most exciting presidential campaign since 1840. The principal issue was again the extension of slavery into the territories. There were four parties in the field. The Republicans nominated Abraham Lincoln of Illinois, on a platform demanding the repudiation of the Dred Scott Decision, and the immediate admission of Kansas as a state under the Topeka Constitution. The southern Democrats named John C. Breckenridge of Kentucky, on a platform demanding that Congress should protect slavery in the territories, and that the United States should acquire Cuba. The northern Democrats chose Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois, and advocated "squatter sovereignty." The "Constitutional Union party," made up of the remnants of the Know-nothings in the South and of the Whigs in the North, selected John Bell of Tennessee. Their platform, ignoring the slavery question altogether, declared for "the Constitution of the country, the union of all the states, and the enforcement of the laws."

Both the Democrats and Republicans favored the building of a railway to the Pacific coast.

497. Lincoln and Hamlin Are Elected—South Carolina Secedes. At the election of 1860, Abraham Lincoln, the Republican candidate, was chosen as the sixteenth President by a plurality of the popular vote, and by a vote of one hundred and eighty electoral votes to the one hundred and twenty-three of the other three presidential nominees combined. He carried every northern state, except New Jersey. Hannibal Hamlin of Maine was elected Vice-president. No other election since that of Jefferson meant so much to the future of the country. It showed that the nation at large did not favor the extension



of slavery and was inclined to take a final stand against it.

Even during the campaign, the South threatened freely to secede from the Union in case of Lincoln's election. The Republicans said that this threat had been made for twenty years, and was but the cry of "wolf," but this time the "wolf" really came, for the South was in deadly earnest. When the election of Lincoln was made known, South Carolina (December, 1860) passed an ordinance of secession and publicly announced the fact to the world.

The state based its right of secession on the old principle of states' rights, as expressed by the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions, the Hartford Convention, and the Nullification Ordinance of South Carolina. Secession and war were not, however, brought about so much by the states' rights question as by anti-slavery agitations, which led to the Kansas-Nebraska troubles, to the Dred Scott Decision, to John Brown's raid, and to the election of Lincoln as President.

498. The Formation of the Southern Confederacy. Other slave states followed the lead of South Carolina and within six weeks (February, 1861), Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas had seceded from the Union. These seven states, which included the great cotton belt of the South, at once sent delegates to a convention at Montgomery, Alabama (February, 1861), and established a provisional government, which they styled "The Confederate States of America." Jefferson Davis of Mississippi was chosen President and Alexander H. Stephens of Georgia, Vice-president. Later in the year four other states—Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas—joined the Confederacy. The border states, Maryland, Kentucky, Missouri, and Delaware, for a while doubtful, remained loyal to the Union. The western counties of Virginia declared for the Union, and upon their request for admission, were added to the Union as a state (1863) under the name of West Virginia. The authorities of the seceding states seized nineteen forts, and seven arsenals,

situated within their borders, together with a vast amount of arms and ammunition belonging to the United States government. Thus only four forts remained in the hands of federal troops—Pickens, Pensacola; Jefferson, Tortugas; Taylor, Key West; and Sumter, Charleston Harbor.

At last the clash had come; the Union was dissolved. Southern Congressmen, judges, and other officers resigned their positions under the government and the Star Spangled Banner was hauled down throughout the eleven states thus far lost to the Union. Confederate papers published items from the Union under the head, "Foreign News."

The Confederate President, Jefferson Davis (1808-1889), was a native of Kentucky. He had served in the Black Hawk War, and had been United States Congressman, and Secretary of War. He was, therefore, well qualified by political experience for his position. The Confederate Vice-president, Alexander Stephens, a great Whig leader (1812-1883), was a native of Georgia and he had served sixteen years in the House of Representatives. Although physically weak he was still very active and influential in Georgian politics. He tried to prevent Georgia from seceding, but, not succeeding in this effort, he followed the fortunes of his state.

499. The Government and Secession. The government offered no resistance to the secessionists or to their seizure of its property, except a weak attempt to re-enforce Major Anderson at Fort Sumter. For this purpose the merchantman, *Star of the West*, was dispatched (January, 1861) to Charleston Harbor. The vessel was, however, fired upon by Charleston gunners at Fort Moultrie and was forced to return.

Buchanan, still irresolute, adopted no decided plan of action. While he declared that he did not believe in the constitutional right of secession, he also declared that he did not believe the national government had the right to use coercion. Neither the North nor the South wanted war. The former demanded that the seceded states should come back into the Union.

Congress made strenuous efforts to compromise the disputed slavery question; a peace conference was held in Washington and amendments to the Constitution were proposed—but to no avail. The policy of compromise, which had distinguished the political history of the country since the Revolutionary War, had now proved utterly futile. The nation looked anxiously forward to the fourth of March, and the great question was, “What will Lincoln do?”

CHRONOLOGICAL REVIEW

1789—1861

George Washington's Administration (1789-1797).

- 1789. George Washington is inaugurated as the first President (April 30).
Rev. John Carroll is consecrated first Bishop of United States (November).
- 1790. The seat of the government is removed to Philadelphia (November).
- 1791. Vermont is admitted as a free state.
- 1792. Kentucky is admitted as a slave state.
Captain Gray discovers and names the Columbia River.
- 1793. Eli Whitney invents the cotton-gin.
The first Fugitive Slave Law is enacted.
Rev. Stephen Badin is ordained first priest.
- 1794. The Whiskey Insurrection occurs in western Pennsylvania.
General Anthony Wayne defeats the Ohio Indians.
- 1795. John Jay concludes a treaty with Great Britain for the surrender of the northwestern forts, payment of American claims, etc.
A treaty is made with Spain for a "Place of deposit."
- 1796. Tennessee is admitted as a slave state.

John Adams's Administration (1797-1801)—Federalist.

- 1797. John Adams is inaugurated as the second President.
- 1798. The Alien and Sedition Laws are enacted.
- 1799. Washington dies at Mount Vernon (December 14).
- 1800. The national capital is removed from Philadelphia to Washington.
Spain cedes Louisiana territory to France.

Thomas Jefferson's Administration (1801-1809)—Democratic-Republican.

- 1801. Thomas Jefferson is inaugurated as the third President.
The war with Tripoli begins.
- 1802. Ohio is admitted as a free state.
- 1803. Louisiana territory is purchased from France for fifteen million dollars.
- 1804. Decatur destroys frigate *Philadelphia* (February 15).
Hamilton is killed by Burr (July 11).
- 1805. Lewis and Clark made an expedition to the Northwest.
A treaty of peace is made with Tripoli.
- 1806. Napoleon publishes the Berlin Decree.
- 1807. Great Britain publishes the Orders in Council; Napoleon issues the Milan Decree.
Henry Clay enters Congress.
Congress passes the Embargo Act.
Robert Fulton invents the first successful steamboat.
The British frigate *Leopard* attacks the American frigate *Chesapeake*.
- 1808. African slave trade is abolished.

James Madison's Administration (1809-1817)—Democratic-Republican.

- 1809. James Madison is inaugurated as the fourth President.
The Non-Intercourse Act is passed.
- 1811. General William H. Harrison defeats the Indians under Tecumseh at Tippecanoe.
The American ship *President* wins a naval victory over the British *Little Belt*.
Astor establishes a trading post at Astoria, at the mouth of the Columbia.
Calhoun enters Congress.
- 1812. Louisiana is admitted as a slave state.
War is declared against England (June 18).
Hull surrenders Detroit to the British (August 8).

The *Essex* captures British sloop *Alert* (August 13).
 The *Constitution* captures the *Guerriere* (August 19).
 The United States sloop *Wasp* captures the British brig *Frolic* (October).

Unsuccessful attempts are made to invade Canada.

1813. Webster enters Congress.

The United States ship *Hornet* captures the British sloop *Peacock*.

The United States frigate *Chesapeake* is captured by the British frigate *Shannon*.

Unsuccessful attempts are again made to invade Canada.

Perry defeats the British on Lake Erie (September 10).

American privateers injure British commerce.

The British are defeated in the Battle of the Thames (October 5).

1814. Jackson defeats the Indians at Horseshoe Bend (March 27).

General Brown defeats the British at Chippewa (July 5).

Brown defeats the British at Lundy's Lane (July 25).

The British capture the capital and burn the government buildings (August 24).

The Hartford Convention assembles (December 15).

The treaty of peace is signed at Ghent, Belgium (December 24).

1815. Jackson defends New Orleans (January 8).

Decatur brings the Barbary States to terms.

Archbishop Carroll dies.

1816. Indiana is admitted as a free state.

The first protective tariff is passed.

The Second Bank is chartered.

James Monroe's Administration (1817-1825)—Democratic-Republican.

1817. James Monroe is inaugurated as the fifth President.

Mississippi is admitted as a slave state.

William Cullen Bryant begins his work as poet and editor.

The Erie Canal, extending from Albany to Buffalo, is begun.

Jackson subdues the Seminoles in Florida.

1818. Illinois is admitted as a free state.

A treaty is made with England, providing joint occupancy of the Oregon country.

1819. Florida is purchased from Spain for five million dollars.

Alabama is admitted as a slave state.

The first steamboat, *The Savannah*, crosses the Atlantic. Washington Irving begins his work as historian, novelist, and descriptive writer.

1820. The Missouri Compromise is passed.

Maine is admitted as a free state.

Monroe is almost unanimously re-elected.

James Fenimore Cooper begins his work as novelist.

1821. Missouri is admitted as a slave state.

Mexico declares her independence of Spain.

1822. The American Colonization Society founds Liberia in Africa.

1823. President Monroe declares the Monroe Doctrine.

1824. Lafayette visits America.

Western Indian Missions are renewed.

A new Protective Tariff Bill is passed.

John Q. Adams's Administration (1825-1829)—National Republican.

1825. John Q. Adams is inaugurated as the sixth President. The Erie Canal is opened.

1826. Jefferson and John Adams die (July 4).

Nathaniel Hawthorne begins his work as writer of romance.

1827. The first passenger railroad, extending from Baltimore to Ellicott's Mills, is in construction.

Edgar A. Poe begins his work as poet and story-teller.

1828. The Tariff of Abominations is passed by Congress.

Andrew Jackson's Administration (1829-1837)—Democratic.

1829. Andrew Jackson is inaugurated as the seventh President.

First Provincial Council is held in Baltimore.

The Spoils System is introduced.

1830. Joseph Smith founds the sect of Mormons.

Oliver W. Holmes and Henry W. Longfellow begin their work as poets and prose writers.

Webster and Hayne hold their famous debate in Congress.

1831. James Monroe dies (July 4).

William Lloyd Garrison begins the Abolitionist agitation by the publication of the "Liberator."

1832. Charles Carroll of Carrollton dies.

General Scott defeats the Indians in the Black Hawk War.

Congress passes a new tariff act.

South Carolina passes the Nullification Ordinance.

Jackson is re-elected.

1833. Clay's Tariff Compromise is passed.

Jackson removes the public funds from the National Bank.

1835. A great fire occurs in New York City (December).

George Bancroft begins his work as American historian.

Ralph Waldo Emerson begins his work as a writer.

1836. General Houston defeats Santa Anna at San Jacinto.

Texas declares her independence.

Arkansas is admitted as a slave state.

James Madison dies (June 28).

1837. Michigan is admitted as a free state.

The United States acknowledges Texan independence.

Martin Van Buren's Presidency (1837-1841)—Democratic.

Martin Van Buren is inaugurated as the eighth President.

A great business panic takes place.

A rebellion occurs in Canada.

1838. Catholic missions are established in Oregon.

1840. Congress passes the sub-treasury bill.

Harrison-Tyler Administrations (1841-1845)—Whigs.

1841. William H. Harrison is inaugurated as the ninth President.

Father De Smet establishes a mission among the Flathead Indians.

Harrison dies (April 4).

Tyler assumes office as the tenth President.

Congress repeals the Sub-treasury Bill.

1842. Dorr's Rebellion occurs in Rhode Island.

The northeastern boundary of the United States is fixed by the Webster-Ashburton Treaty with England. James Russell Lowell begins his work as poet and essayist.

1844. The Anti-rent difficulties occur in New York.

Samuel F. B. Morse erects from Baltimore to Washington the first successful electric telegraph line in the world.

Native American riots occur in Philadelphia.

The Mormons set out for Utah; Smith is killed.

1845. Florida is admitted as a slave state.

Texas is admitted as a slave state.

James K. Polk's Administration (1845-1849)—Democratic.

James K. Polk is inaugurated as the eleventh President.

1846. The Mexicans are defeated by Taylor in the battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma.

War with Mexico is declared.

Elias Howe invents the sewing machine.

Iowa is admitted as a free state.

Fremont conquers California.

Kearny conquers New Mexico.

Taylor captures Monterey.

Agassiz begins his scientific work as geologist in America.

By treaty with England the Oregon boundary is fixed at 49°.

Mary Immaculate is chosen the patroness of the United States.

1847. Taylor defeats Santa Anna at Buena Vista.

Scott takes Vera Cruz and the City of Mexico.

1848. A treaty of peace is made with Mexico at Guadalupe Hidalgo.

Gold is discovered in California.

Wisconsin is admitted as a free state.

John Q. Adams dies (February 23).

Taylor-Fillmore Administrations (1849-1853)—Whigs.

1849. Zachary Taylor is inaugurated as the twelfth President.

Congress organizes the Department of the Interior to provide for the management of the new territories. A struggle for the admission of California takes place. Francis Parkman begins his work as American historian.

William H. Seward, Jefferson Davis, and Charles Sumner enter the Senate.

1850. President Taylor dies (July 9).

Millard Fillmore assumes office as the thirteenth President.

California is admitted as a free state.

The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty is made.

John C. Calhoun dies (March 31).

Personal Liberty Laws are passed.

The Underground Railway is organized.

1851. Lopez and his filibustering companions are executed at Havana.

1852. The First Plenary Council meets at Baltimore.

Henry Clay dies (June 28).

Daniel Webster dies (October 24).

Uncle Tom's Cabin is published.

Franklin Pierce's Administration (1853-1857)—Democratic.

1853. Franklin Pierce is inaugurated as the fourteenth President.

The Gadsden Purchase is made.

A World's Fair is held at New York.

The Know-nothing party is organized.

1854. The Kansas-Nebraska bill is passed.

The Civil War in Kansas begins.

Commodore Matthew C. Perry negotiates a treaty of trade with Japan.

James Buchanan's Administration (1857-1861)—Democratic.

1857. James Buchanan is inaugurated as the fifteenth President.

The Dred Scott Decision is made by the Supreme Court.

A great business panic occurs.

1858. The Lincoln-Douglas debates take place.

Minnesota is admitted as a free state.

A civil war in Kansas ends in the framing of the constitution forbidding slavery.

1859. John Brown's Raid excites the country.

Oregon is admitted as a free state.

1860. South Carolina passes an ordinance of secession.

The Democratic party is split into a northern and a southern division.

1861. The Southern Confederacy is formed, and Jefferson Davis is chosen President.

Kansas is admitted as a free state.

PERIOD OF THE CIVIL WAR

CHAPTER XXX

ABRAHAM LINCOLN'S ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1861-1865

THE WAR TO THE BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG (1861-1863)

500. Extent and Significance of the Civil War. The period of the Civil War extends from the breaking out of the war in 1861 to the surrender of the Confederate armies in 1865. It includes the events of the gigantic conflict between the northern and the southern sections of the Union, which ended in the perpetuation of the Union and the abolition of slavery.

501. Lincoln's Inauguration. Rumors of a plot to assassinate Lincoln induced him, on the advice of his friends, to make a quick and secret night journey through Baltimore to the Federal capital, where he was inaugurated the next morning (March 4, 1861) without any disturbance. Perhaps never before and never since was a President's inaugural address so eagerly looked forward to, as was that of Abraham Lincoln, our first Republican President.

In simple words he declared that his aim was to preserve the Union, which should be perpetual and from which no state could lawfully withdraw; that he had no intention of interfering with slavery in the states where it existed; and that he would faithfully execute the laws of the Union in all the states, and hold, occupy, and possess all property and places belonging to the government. He closed with an appeal to the South in the words: "You have no oath registered in Heaven to



LINCOLN AND HIS SON "TAD"

destroy the government, while I shall have a most solemn one to preserve, protect, and defend it.' The President's address found great favor in the North, since it made the saving of the Union, instead of the opposition to slavery, the great issue. Even Douglas, with his numerous followers, heartily applauded and enthusiastically supported Lincoln in his noble purpose of preserving the Union. Though the people had not yet learned to trust the judgment of this untutored President from the West, his election proved to be most fortunate, and Lincoln is now ranked among the greatest of our Presidents.

For his Cabinet, Lincoln chose only men of distinguished ability. In this choice, as also in his inaugural address, he planned to unite the political factions of the Union. He selected: William H. Seward of New York, a former Whig and his greatest rival for the presidency, as Secretary of State; Salmon P. Chase of Ohio, a Free-Soil Democrat, and also a strong candidate for the presidency, as Secretary of the Treasury, and Edwin M. Stanton of Ohio, a Democrat Unionist, as Secretary of War. All the other members, except one, were chosen from the states bordering the Confederate section, which were wavering in their allegiance to the Union. Naturally, these advisers, like those of Washington, did not all agree with the President on the great questions before the country. With the completion of Lincoln's Cabinet the two governments stood face to face, each waiting for the other to strike the first blow.

502. Comparative Strength and Resources of the Opposing Sections. Before taking up the study of the Civil War it will be well to compare the advantages and resources of the two sections.

The twenty-three Union states had a population of about twenty-two million, of which half a million were slaves, while the eleven Confederate states had a population of about nine million, and of these three and one-half million were slaves. The slaves carried no arms, but they could furnish the armies with supplies and work in the camp.

The North, owing to her industrial system, had more wealth and a greater number of able business men than the South, where the money and business enterprises were chiefly in the hands of a comparatively small number of planters.

The North controlled the navy, had dockyards, and possessed the financial means for building and repairing warships, with which it could shut up southern ports against aid from abroad; while the South, having put nearly all her energies into the cultivation of rice, cotton, sugar, and tobacco, had few sailors and no navy, and possessed but small means of building ships.

In factories which supplied the soldiers with everything from blankets to cannon, as also in resources for food supplies, the North greatly surpassed the South, which was almost entirely dependent upon the North and European countries for its necessities of life. Hence, when severed from the North and shut off from Europe by blockaded ports, the South was no longer able to exchange its staple crop, cotton, for the things it needed, and in consequence was seriously crippled.

The South had the majority of the best-known officers of the regular army who, with Jefferson Davis at the head, formed a group of talented West Point graduates. The southern people, as a rule, showed special aptitude for military pursuits, owing to their outdoor agricultural life, constant use of fire-arms, and skill in horsemanship. The North, on the other hand, was a land of business men, and, with the exception of General Scott and a few other military leaders who remained loyal to the Union, was at first far inferior to the South in respect to experienced soldiers. The "boys in blue" found it a stupendous task to transform themselves into trained soldiers.

The South, having obtained possession of large quantities of arms and ammunition, was prepared for war, while the northern people at large did not believe that war would really be brought about, and were entirely unprepared. John B.

Floyd, Buchanan's Secretary of War, was a zealous secessionist and by his orders an immense quantity of muskets, cannon, ammunition, and other war stores had been transferred (1860) from northern to southern arsenals.

The South could fight on her own soil near the sources of supplies. Her soldiers were familiar with every stream, hill, road, and wood.

On the whole, the North and South were more evenly matched than is usually supposed. As to courage, ability, self-sacrifice, and loyalty to cause, the two sections were equal. The reason for the failure of the one and the success of the other may be found in the superior number of soldiers, in the greater resources, and in the industrial capacity of the North.

The backwardness of the South in wealth and population must be attributed to slavery. The prosperity of the North was grounded on free and intelligent labor. The farmer and the working man labored with energy because the fruits of their efforts were their own.

The rich man of the South did not need to work, and could devote his time to politics, literature, and social enjoyment. The slaves, laboring under compulsion and having nothing to gain by industry, worked slowly, carelessly, and stupidly. The poor among the whites, who to a great extent had grown up in belief that work was a disgrace and a sign of slavery, thus became a shiftless and thriftless portion of the community in the South.

503. Causes of the Civil War. Diverging interpretations of the Constitution, different systems of labor in the North and the South, lack of intercourse between the two sections, and the increase of territory, led to the three great remote causes of the Civil War:

- (a) slavery;
- (b) the doctrine of states' rights;
- (c) the tariff question.

The immediate causes of the Civil War were :

- (a) the election of Lincoln;
- (b) the secession of the southern states;
- (c) the attack on Fort Sumter.

504. Scene of the War. The war was fought principally south of Mason and Dixon's line and the Ohio River. The physical geography of the field of war had much to do with the outcome of the conflict. In the East, the South had the advantage for the following reasons :

- (a) the approach to Richmond from the north was rendered difficult by a number of bridgeless rivers, dangerous swamps, and dense forests;
- (b) an attack on the city from the south would require a navy;
- (c) an attempt to capture it from the west would expose the Union army to the risk of being cut off from communications and supplies;
- (d) the Shenandoah Valley was a sheltered highway, along which the Confederates could proceed and thence cross the Potomac to invade Maryland, and thus endanger the capital.

The Shenandoah Valley afforded little advantage to the Union forces because its westward trend would carry them farther away from Richmond, the farther south they proceeded.

In the West, the North had the following advantages :

- (a) broad waterways, such as the Tennessee and the Cumberland rivers, led from the Union soil into the very heart of the Confederacy, while the Mississippi River afforded an opportunity for cutting the Confederacy in two. The South, lacking river steamers as well as the means to build them, was obliged to yield these advantages to the North;
- (b) The North had control of Chesapeake Bay, and by its waters Union troops and supplies could be moved on toward Richmond.

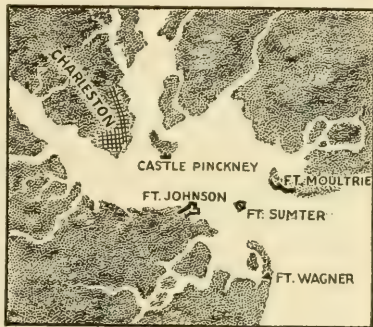


MANZ-Chicago.

FIRST YEAR OF THE WAR—1861

505. The Capture of Fort Sumter by the South. On the morning following his inauguration, Lincoln received word from Robert Anderson, who was in command of Fort Sumter, that without re-enforcements he could not hold the fort much longer. The Confederate forces, commanded by Beauregard, a distinguished soldier of the Mexican War, anticipating the re-enforcement of Fort Sumter, bombarded the garrison. Anderson, after a brave stand of thirty-four hours, made an honorable surrender (April 14, 1861) and embarked for New York, carrying with him the tattered flag under which he and his men had fought.

The news of the capture of Fort Sumter electrified the whole country and served to consolidate the North and the South against each other. The remaining slave states—Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee, now speedily joined the Confederacy. Maryland and Delaware showed little disposition to link their fortunes with the



FORT SUMTER

southern cause, and Kentucky and Missouri wished to remain neutral. The loss of Virginia, owing to its rank, population, wealth, and geographical position was a serious blow to the North. This state took with her two great military leaders—Robert E. Lee and Thomas Jackson—as well as the arsenals at Harper's Ferry, and the navy-yard. This loss, however, was partly repaired by the fact that the counties of Virginia west of the mountains, not finding slavery profitable and being closely united in interest with Pennsylvania refused to join the Confederacy. These counties banded together and formed a state

which was later admitted to the Union as West Virginia. With the support of Generals McClellan and Rosecrans, who defeated the Confederate troops and drove them from the region, the new state maintained her independence from Virginia.

After the surrender of Fort Sumter the "Star Spangled Banner" was loyally flung to the breeze everywhere through the North, while the Confederacy displayed as freely its new standard, the Stars and Bars.

506. First Call for Volunteers. Most of the United States arsenals and forts had been seized by the seceding states; national authority had been defied at Fort Sumter; and Washington, being so near the Confederate states, was speedily becoming an unsafe place for the government. The Confederate Secretary of War declared that before the first of May the Confederate flag would float over the dome of the capitol.

On the day following the evacuation of Fort Sumter, President Lincoln called for seventy-five thousand volunteers to serve for three months. Four times that number offered their services. The Sixth Massachusetts volunteer regiment began its march to the capital the same day. While passing through Baltimore (April 19) it was attacked by a mob and several soldiers were killed. This was the first bloodshed of the war. It occurred on the eighty-sixth anniversary of the skirmish at Lexington.

507. Financial Measures of Congress. After Lincoln's first call for volunteers, Congress met in extra session and authorized the President to call for additional volunteers and to increase the navy and regular army. It also greatly raised the tariff (1861) for the purpose of adding to the revenue; levied heavy internal taxes for the support of the war; adopted a Homestead Bill, which offered portions of public domain to heads of families, on condition of their living upon it and cultivating it for five years; and voted the construction of the Union Pacific Railroad, for which purpose money and large tracts of land were granted by the Federal government. Further-

more, at the suggestion of Secretary Chase, Congress voted that money be borrowed and that the government issue paper money or "greenbacks." As the war continued, gold was soon at a premium and "greenbacks" so decreased in value that in 1864 a dollar note was worth only thirty-five cents in gold.

508. Organization of the Contending Armies. Lincoln, early in May, made a second call for forty-two thousand volunteers to serve for three years, and for forty thousand men for the regular army and navy. Thus the strength of the Union force was raised to one hundred and eighty-three thousand men.



WASHINGTON AND VICINITY

This army was placed under the command of General Winfield Scott and distributed on a line of two thousand miles, passing along the Potomac, across northern Virginia, Kentucky, Missouri, Indian Territory, to New Mexico. Washington was the fortified center.

President Davis of the Confederacy also called for volunteers, and his call was obeyed as eagerly as President Lincoln's. The Confederate army numbered about one hundred and fifty

thousand and was under the direction of General Beauregard. With Richmond as its fortified center it held the country south of the Potomac and all the strong fortifications along the Mississippi and the Mexican border.

Each army had the twofold object of protecting its own capital and of capturing the capital of the enemy. Hence each section immediately sought to make its own capital secure.

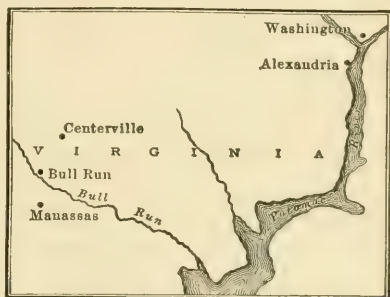
509. Counteracting Proclamations. To counteract Lincoln's call for volunteers, Davis issued (April 17) a proclamation offering letters of marque and reprisal to all ship-owners who would prey upon northern commerce.

President Lincoln responded (April 19) by a proclamation declaring the ports of the Confederacy to be in a state of blockade, and Union vessels were stationed outside the harbor of all southern ports to prevent foreign commerce. This proclamation and act constituted a declaration of war.

The blockade of the ports in the South was rendered so complete within the course of a year that, with the exception of an occasional "blockade-runner," no vessel could enter or leave a southern port. Consequently, the main source of income to the South—the sale of cotton—was now cut off, and the procuring of ammunition and arms was rendered very difficult. Great masses of cotton, piled up along the sea coast, sold for four cents a pound, although the manufacturers in England would have paid two dollars and fifty cents per pound for it. A ton of salt, which could be purchased for seven dollars in the West Indies, sold for fifteen hundred dollars in Richmond.

The South, notwithstanding, obtained blockade-runners which were constructed chiefly in England. These vessels were of light draught and could easily move through channels too shallow for their pursuers. They were painted a dull gray, to make them less conspicuous. With these vessels the southerners could, under cover of night, steal in and out of their ports carrying away cotton and bringing back military stores and other supplies.

510. Foreign Attitude. The Union and the Confederacy each counted on sympathy from Europe. The Union founded her hopes on the fact that England, having led the way in abolishing slavery, would now support her cause. She was disappointed, however, for England and France recognized the Confederacy as a belligerent power, entitled to all the rights of war, though they did not acknowledge her as a nation. The Confederacy from the first hoped and expected foreign recognition and assistance. There were hundreds of factories in England and France which depended upon cotton from the South, and hence southerners believed that, rather than suffer injury to their cotton industry, these nations would recognize the independence of the Confederacy, and lend money to it. But English mechanics and factory hands were willing to suffer rather than to aid slavery. The relations of the Union with Germany and Russia during the war were more friendly; both nations displayed sympathy with her cause.



BULL RUN AND MANASSAS

511. The Battle of Bull Run. The northern people soon became impatient at the delay in opening aggressive movements against the South. Encouraged by the successes of McClellan in West Virginia, they wanted to end the war in three months. They believed the capture of the Confederate capital would crush the Confederacy, and "On to Richmond!" became the cry of the people. General Scott, influenced by public opinion, against his military judgment ordered an advance to be made under General McDowell. McDowell, with about thirty thousand men, marched from Washington toward Richmond. He met the Confederate forces, some

twenty thousand strong, under General Beauregard, at the village of Manassas Junction, near a small branch of the Potomac in Virginia, known as Bull Run. At first, success favored the Union troops; in the afternoon, however, the Union army, composed chiefly of raw recruits, was thrown into a panic and fled in great disorder toward Washington. The capital was panic-stricken from fear of falling into Confederate hands; but the Confederate army had suffered too severely to follow up its advantage. While the Union troops were fiercely charging, the Confederate brigade under Thomas Jackson was still firmly holding its ground. Seeing this, the Confederate general, Bee, rallying his division cried, "Look at Jackson's brigade; they stand like a stone wall!" Thus originated the title "Stonewall" Jackson, by which the brave general was ever after known.

The South was overjoyed at the success of the battle and many thought that the war was practically decided. But the North, though greatly humbled, was more benefited by her failure than the South by her success. The North learned two lessons: that the war was certain to last longer than three months; and that an undisciplined army is scarcely better than a mob. With grim determination she now put forth all her energies in preparation for the great struggle.

The aged Scott now retired and General George B. McClellan was called from West Virginia to take command of the Union army. He organized the raw volunteers and during nine months of drill and discipline changed them into the magnificent Army of the Potomac, about one hundred and fifty thousand strong. The Confederates also were strengthening their lines and drilling their men.

512. War in the Border States. In the border states the people were divided in opinion and enlisted in both armies. Armed bands swept through the country, plundering and murdering those who favored the opposite party. In Missouri Captain Lyon broke up the Confederate camp near St. Louis

and secured the arsenal for the Union. At Booneville he defeated (June) a force of Confederates who invaded the state from Arkansas. The Federals under Sigel were next defeated (July) at Carthage by the Confederates under Price. The Federal forces under Lyon were defeated (August) at Wilson's Creek, near Springfield, and Captain Lyon was killed. The Federal Irish brigade, in command of Colonel Mulligan, after a gallant three days' resistance against a far superior Confederate force under Price, was obliged to surrender (September) at Lexington, on the Missouri. A Federal detachment from Illinois, commanded by General Grant, though at first successful, was finally obliged to retire (November) before a superior Confederate force at Belmont. The Federals at last drove the Confederates into Arkansas, thus securing Missouri for the Union. Kentucky, also ravaged by hostile forces, declared for the Union (September). General Fremont, in chief command of the war in the West, was superseded by General Hunter who, after a fortnight, was in turn superseded by Henry W. Halleck.

513. Union Defeats—Events Along the Coast. A detachment of General Butler's troops was defeated at Big Bethel, near Fortress Monroe on York peninsula, while another Federal force of about twenty thousand was outnumbered and defeated at Ball's Bluff, near Harper's Ferry (October). The Union general, Baker, a popular senator from Oregon and a brilliant orator, was among the killed.

The combined Federal naval and land forces captured Hatteras Inlet and Fort Hatteras; another expedition captured Port Royal and occupied the islands between Charleston and Savannah; another saved Fort Pickens, near Pensacola; while a Federal fleet (September) took possession of Ship Island, at the mouth of the Mississippi.

514. The Trent Affair. In the autumn of 1861, President Davis sent two commissioners, Mason and Slidell, to Europe to urge the Confederate cause. They ran the blockade at

Charleston, and embarked at Havana on the English steamer *Trent*. Captain Wilkes of the United States sloop of war *San Jacinto* overhauled the *Trent* and took from it by force the two commissioners. England, considering this action an insult to her flag, made a sharp demand for the release of the prisoners and sent troops to Canada. The United States government immediately disavowed the act of Captain Wilkes and placed the commissioners on a British ship, in which they were conveyed to their destination. Thus war with England was averted.

It was just before the "Trent affair," that President Lincoln sent Archbishop Hughes and Thurlow Weed to France and England to help the cause of the Union and to avert the danger of foreign war. The spirit in which the great Archbishop performed his mission is well expressed in his own words: "I made known to the President that if I should come to Europe it would not be as a partisan of the North more than of the South; that I should represent the interests of the South as well as the North; in short, the interests of the United States, just the same as if they had never been distracted by the present Civil War."

515. Summary of 1861. At the end of the year 1861 the Confederacy had seized most of the forts and arsenals in the South; had won the two great battles of the year—Bull Run and Wilson's Creek—and had also been victorious in several other engagements.

On the other hand, the Union had gained many advantages. It

- (a) had gained possession of places along the coast—Fort Monroe, Hatteras Inlet, Port Royal, Fort Pickens, Ship Island—from which points a complete blockade of the southern ports was effected;
- (b) had gained several minor victories and saved Missouri, Kentucky, Maryland, and West Virginia to the Union;
- (c) had thrown the whole South into a state of siege by means of the land forces on the north and west and a vigilant blockading squadron along the coast;

(d) had scarcely felt the effects of the war on its commerce and industry.

At the close of the first year of the war neither side could claim any decided advantage.

IMPORTANT BATTLES OF 1861

NAME OF BATTLE	Place Where Fought	Date	Commanding General of Union Army	Commanding General of Confederate Army
Bull Run....	Bull Run, Va.	July 21.....	Brig.-Gen. I. McDowell	Gen. J. E. Johnston
Wilson's Creek	Wilson's Creek, Mo.	Aug. 10.....	Brig.-General N. Lyon	Brig.-Gen. B. McCulloch
Ball's Bluff..	Ball's Bluff, Va.	Oct. 21.....	Gen. C. P. Stone	Gen. N. G. Evans
Belmont.....	Belmont, Mo.	Nov. 7.....	Brig.-Gen. U. S. Grant	Maj.-Gen. L. L. Polk

SECOND YEAR OF THE WAR—1862

516. Lincoln's Strategic Plans. Lincoln at the very beginning of the war stated that four things were essential to ultimate success, namely:

- (a) the defense of Washington and the capture of Richmond;
- (b) the prevention of the border states from seceding;
- (c) the opening of the Mississippi River in order to give the West communication with the sea and cut off the Confederacy from western supplies;
- (d) an effective blockade of the southern ports for the purpose of preventing European supplies from reaching the South.

During the first year of the war the following of Lincoln's plans were carried out:

- (a) Washington was well fortified;
- (b) the neutral border states were prevented from seceding; and
- (c) the southern ports were fairly well blockaded.

Consequently, the Federal plan of operation which remained to be accomplished during the second year of the war was

threefold: the opening of the Mississippi River; the more thorough blockade of the southern ports, and the capture of Richmond.

THE CAMPAIGN IN THE WEST

517. Confederate Lines of Defense. The Confederate line of defense extended from Columbus, on the Mississippi, through Kentucky to Cumberland Gap, in the Alleghany Mountains. General Albert Sydney Johnston, commander of all the Confederate forces in the West, with about fifteen thousand men, had his headquarters at Bowling Green; General Polk, with about one hundred and twenty-one thousand men, held Columbus and the surrounding points; while Brigadier General Zollicoffer, with about six thousand men, held Cumberland Gap. To break this line was the object of the Federal forces that were under the command of General Halleck at St. Louis and General Buell at Louisville. In a short time these two generals mustered a well-armed and thoroughly equipped army of about one hundred thousand men. Besides these land forces the Federals also had a good river fleet.

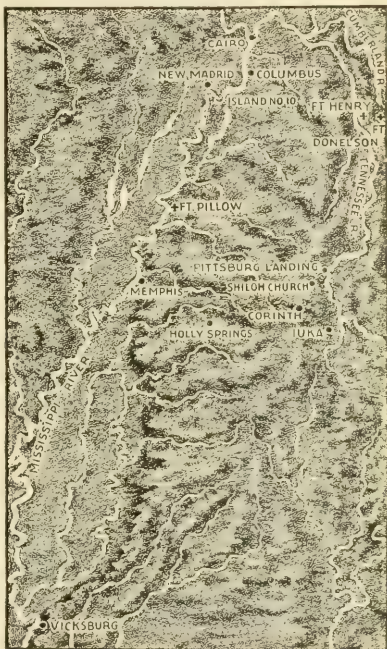
518. Federal Victory at Mill Springs—Capture of Forts Henry and Donelson. General Thomas made the first break in the Confederate lines. He attacked and totally defeated Zollicoffer at Mill Springs, where he secured prisoners, guns, and valuable military stores. The result of this battle was the capture of Cumberland Gap, which opened the way to eastern Tennessee.

To control the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers, the Confederates had erected Forts Henry and Donelson. Commodore Foote with a flotilla of ironclad gunboats captured (February) Fort Henry, whereupon the Confederates escaped to Fort Donelson on the Cumberland. A week later (the flotilla having made its way from the Tennessee into the Cumberland) Grant, aided by Foote's gunboats, made an attack upon Fort Donelson, and forced General Buckner to surrender the fort and its garrison of some fifteen thousand men. To the Confederates'

inquiry as to terms of surrender, Grant wrote his famous reply: "No terms, except unconditional surrender; I propose to move immediately upon your works." Large quantities of guns and military stores fell into the hands of the Federals.

The capture of Fort Donelson was one of the turning points of the war. It was the first great Union victory, and the North was jubilant. The Confederates had been obliged to abandon Bowling Green, Columbus, and Nashville. Thus Kentucky and most of Tennessee had been yielded to the Federals. Chattanooga, the key to east Tennessee, was open to invasion. The victory gave the Unionists an advance of one hundred miles into the Confederate lines and "Unconditional Surrender" Grant was the hero of the hour.

Grant had advanced to Nashville without waiting for orders, or giving any report of his proceedings to Halleck, who had chief command of the western army. The latter complained to McClellan, the commander-in-chief, and McClellan authorized Halleck to arrest Grant and put C. F. Smith in command. Halleck, however, in consideration of the immense popularity which "Unconditional Surrender" Grant had won for himself, only ordered him back to Fort Henry and placed Smith in charge of the expedition up the Tennessee. At length Halleck, after he had received Grant's reports, telegraphed him his



satisfaction, and Grant, who had been keenly offended, was pacified. Grant, however, had such an aversion for giving detailed reports of his movements, that the department at Washington was obliged to send to his headquarters a special agent, who by daily telegraph reports kept the government informed. General Grant's initials were U. S. (Ulysses Simpson); after the famous reply mentioned above, people translated them into "Unconditional Surrender."

519. Union Victory at Shiloh. After the capture of Fort Donelson, the Confederates, about forty thousand in number, under Johnston, Beauregard, and Bragg, made Corinth their center for further military action. Grant, with the Army of the Tennessee, and Buell, with the Army of the Cumberland, occupied Nashville. Their combined forces numbered about seventy-five thousand men. Grant proceeded to Pittsburg Landing, near Shiloh, in southwestern Tennessee, to which place Buell was hastening from Nashville. The two armies planned to advance upon the Confederates at Corinth. Johnston, hoping to crush Grant before Buell could arrive, made a hasty march from Corinth and met the Union army at Shiloh. On the first day the Union forces were defeated and driven steadily back toward the river. On the night following, however, Buell arrived, and the Unionists won a great victory. The Confederates were forced from the field with the loss of their noble commander, Albert Sydney Johnston, and twenty-five thousand men. This was one of the bloodiest battles of the war. General Beauregard now assumed command of the Confederate forces, which had retreated to Corinth. This place they were, however, soon compelled to evacuate (May).

520. Opening of the Mississippi. After aiding in the capture of Donelson, Foote with his gunboats attacked Island No. 10 in the Mississippi River. He captured the place on the same day that Grant and Buell won the famous battle of Shiloh. Fort Pillow was next taken (June) and the Union gunboats

then advanced down the Mississippi to Memphis. Admiral Davis defeated the Confederate fleet guarding that city and the Federal forces occupied Memphis (June). The Mississippi River was now opened to Vicksburg and as the Federal troops were in control of western Kentucky and Tennessee their line of defense extended from Memphis to Chattanooga.

Meanwhile, General S. R. Curtis, supported by General Sigel, had met the Confederates, commanded by General Van Dorn, at Pea Ridge (March). A hard battle was fought, in which the Confederates were defeated and forced south of the Arkansas River. After this no important battle occurred west of the Mississippi.

521. The Battles of Perryville and Murfreesboro. Bragg, who succeeded Beauregard as Confederate commander in the West, determined to recover Tennessee and Kentucky. He moved eastward toward Chattanooga and then started northward directly toward Louisville. Buell reached Louisville before the Confederates, and thus saved the city. An indecisive battle was fought at Perryville (October) and the Confederates, carrying with them long trains of captured supplies, withdrew to Chattanooga, where they left their booty. On their way to Nashville, they next fortified Murfreesboro or Stone River, where William Rosecrans, who had superseded Buell, attacked and defeated Bragg in one of the hardest fought battles of the war. The battle, however, was not decisive, for, though the Confederates were obliged to withdraw, the Federals were too much crippled to pursue. The Union loss was about thirteen thousand and the Confederate about ten thousand. The battle left the control of central Tennessee in the hands of the Unionists.

522. Federal Victory at Iuka and Corinth. Grant and Sherman were with the army of the Tennessee at Corinth. While a part of Grant's army, under Buell, was busily employed in driving Bragg from the state, the Confederate Generals Price and Van Dorn took advantage of the opportunity and endeav-

ored to regain Corinth. Rosecrans, however, defeated Price at Iuka (September) and repulsed (October) a fierce attack on Corinth made by the combined forces of Van Dorn and Price.

General Grant, shortly before the close of the second year of the war, made an attempt to take Vicksburg (December). He proceeded from Jackson, Mississippi, while Sherman, with his troops, and Porter, with a fleet of gunboats were to descend the river from Memphis. The Confederates commanded by Van Dorn succeeded in getting in Grant's rear and cutting off supplies. Sherman and Porter too were repulsed.

523. Results of the Campaign in the West. The results of the campaign in the West were highly favorable to the North. The Union forces had kept possession of Missouri and secured control of Tennessee and the Mississippi River with the exception of the stretch between Port Hudson and Vicksburg (New Orleans having been captured in April). The Confederates still firmly held Chattanooga through which the railroads passed from Virginia to the southwestern states.

NAVAL OPERATIONS ALONG THE COAST

524. Battles Between the Ironclads. While the army in the West was busy carrying out its work in the plan of the war, the Federal blockade of the southern ports was suddenly endangered. The *Merrimac*, a Confederate ironclad gunboat, under the command of Commodore Franklin Buchanan, entered (April) Hampton Roads. Here it met a Union fleet, which, with the land batteries, rained shot and shell against the ironclad monster but with no effect. The strange craft thrust its prow into the *Cumberland* and sank it. It next drove the other vessels ashore and set several of them on fire. Had not darkness come on, it would have destroyed the whole fleet. Satisfied with the results of the day, however, it withdrew to Norfolk, intending to continue its work of destruction the next day. As it steamed proudly out from Norfolk the following

morning (March 9), the Confederate ironclad was, to its intense surprise, confronted by the Union ironclad *Monitor*, in command of Lieutenant John Worden. By one of the strangest and most dramatic coincidents in our history, this new Union ironclad had arrived during the night from New York. At once the battle began and continued for four hours with the utmost desperation. The little *Monitor* darted at the great Confederate warrior and, close against each other, the two



THE MONITOR AND THE MERRIMAC

craft exchanged their heaviest shots. The *Merrimac*, trying to run down the *Monitor*, could only grate over its iron deck, while the *Monitor* glided out unharmed. Unable to conquer its little antagonist, the *Merrimac*, partially disabled, steamed back to Norfolk for repairs.

On the victory of this, the first battle ever fought between ironclad ships, hinged the fate of the war.

Had the *Merrimac* succeeded:

(a) the blockade would soon have been destroyed, the cotton

markets opened, and perhaps European recognition of the Confederacy secured. In short, secession might have triumphed;

(b) the Peninsular Campaign, which we shall presently study, would have been prevented.

The *Monitor*, scarcely one-fourth as large as the *Merrimac*, was a new Union ironclad built by John Ericsson in the Brooklyn navy yard. It was a hull with a deck a few inches above water, in the center of which was a curious revolving iron turret containing two guns. Because of its similarity to a huge cheese box on a raft, it was nicknamed "Yankee cheese box on a plank." Insignificant as the *Monitor* appeared, it was, nevertheless, at that moment the most powerful warship in the world, and marked a wonderful change in the world's warfare. Strangely enough, neither vessel did much further service. The *Merrimac* was blown up by the Confederates when they abandoned Norfolk during McClellan's Peninsular Campaign in May of this year, and the *Monitor* sank in a storm at sea near Cape Hatteras (1863).

525. Capture of New Orleans. The Mississippi had been opened from the north as far south as Vicksburg; but with New Orleans in possession of the Confederates, the Union could not possibly secure either a complete blockade, or the control of the rest of the river. Hence an expedition of naval and land forces (about fifteen thousand), commanded by Commodore David Farragut and General Benjamin Butler, sailed from Hampton Roads and landed on Ship Island, in the mouth of the Mississippi. The approach to New Orleans from the south was guarded by the two strongly fortified forts, Jackson and St. Philip, located some distance below the city. Below the forts the river was obstructed by a raft of vessels and logs, connected by chains, while above them was a fleet of thirteen Confederate gunboats and an ironclad floating battery. At a favorable opportunity, Farragut, amid the bombardment of the forts, broke the chains which connected the raft, and with

his flotilla of forty vessels made a perilous run past the forts, destroyed the Confederate gunboats, and forced New Orleans to surrender (April). General Butler took command of the city as military governor. By the capture of New Orleans the blockade was rendered more thorough, and the Mississippi River, except for the stretch from Port Hudson to Vicksburg, was left in the control of the Union forces.

WAR IN THE EAST—PENINSULAR CAMPAIGN

526. Position of the Armies—The Project of Capturing Richmond. Returning to the war in the East, we find that after the Federal defeat at Bull Run, McClellan, who had superseded McDowell, spent the winter (1861-1862) organizing and disciplining his forces—the Army of the Potomac—which numbered about two hundred thousand. The Confederate army in the East was commanded by Joseph E. Johnston, and numbered less than one hundred thousand.

The capture of Richmond was the object of the North. The city could be approached in three ways: by direct land route, through the Shenandoah Valley, and by Chesapeake Bay and the peninsula between the James and York rivers. The people of the North, as well as the authorities at Washington, favored the direct land route to Richmond. McClellan, however, preferred the old Revolutionary fighting field, and Lincoln reluctantly yielded to him. McClellan's plan necessitated a division of the Union forces in the East into four separate armies under independent commanders: one under McClellan in the peninsula, another under McDowell for the protection of Washington, a third under Banks in the Shenandoah Valley, and a fourth under Fremont in the passes leading to West Virginia.

527. McClellan Fights His Way to the Vicinity of Richmond. McClellan transported (March) his army of ninety thousand by water to Fortress Monroe, intending to move upon Richmond by the peninsula between the York and James rivers.

The Confederate commander, Joseph E. Johnston, however, had learned of McClellan's plan, and when the Union forces landed on the peninsula, they found a line of entrenchments which barred their way from Yorktown to Richmond.

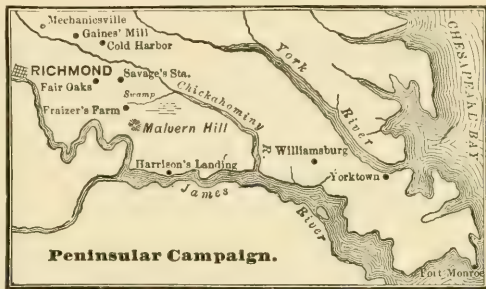
McClellan besieged Yorktown, but the Confederates, after delaying him for a month, slipped away unharmed. Norfolk was evacuated about the same time, after the navy yard had been burned and the famous *Merrimac* blown up. McClellan followed up the retreating Confederates and defeated them at Williamsburg. He next advanced to the Chickahominy River. A part of his army crossed this river to Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines, and was furiously attacked by the Confederates under Johnston. A desperate battle continued for two days. Though the Union troops suffered the greater loss of life, they held their ground. The Confederates, with Johnston wounded, retired. Robert E. Lee now succeeded Johnston in command of the southern troops.

528. Jackson's and Stuart's Raids. Instead of attacking Richmond at once, McClellan waited for McDowell to re-enforce him at White House Landing. But Stonewall Jackson made a dashing raid through the Shenandoah Valley, the "backdoor to Washington," out-generaled and defeated Banks and Fremont, and in three weeks had not only cleared the valley of Federal troops, but had also carried his forces back by rail in time to assist Lee against McClellan. Furthermore, General Stuart, with his dashing cavalry, had encircled McClellan's army, torn up railroads, and burned immense quantities of supplies. Consequently, Jackson's raid, which took the appearance of an attack on Washington, kept McDowell there to protect the seat of government, while Stuart's action had checked the progress of the Federal troops.

529. The Seven Days' Battles. McClellan determined to change his base of operations from the York to the James River, but was attacked on the way by the Confederates in a series of destructive battles which lasted seven days (June 25

till July 1). (The Seven Days' Battles were fought at Mechanicsville, Gaines Mill, Savage Station, Glendale, or Frazier's Farm and Malvern Hill.) The last of these engagements resulted in Lee's repulse. McClellan withdrew his army to Harrison's Landing, on the James River, farther from Richmond than before. Thus the result of the Peninsular Campaign was a Union failure—Richmond was not taken..

The campaign was a triumph for the Confederate cause. The Union retreat had been conducted with skill, the troops had distinguished themselves by bravery and steadiness, and the battle at Malvern Hill was a decided victory; yet Richmond had not been taken; some ten thousand Union soldiers had been made prisoners, immense Union stores had been taken or destroyed, and the Union army was, as it were, cooped up on the James River.



The North was now as much discouraged as it had been after the battle of Bull Run.

530. Results of the Peninsular Campaign—Lincoln's Stand. Although the people throughout the North were greatly disheartened by the failure of the Peninsular Campaign, Lincoln did not allow his spirits to sink. He called for three hundred thousand more volunteers, and four hundred and twenty-one thousand promptly responded. General Halleck was appointed commander-in-chief of the Union armies, while McClellan remained in command of the Army of the Potomac. His plan for the capture of Richmond was given up and the forces of McDowell, Banks, and Fremont were united under the name of the Army of Virginia, with General Pope as commander.

Congress during this period passed a number of measures, the most important of which were the construction of a railroad to the Pacific Ocean, the establishment of a Department of Agriculture, and the "Morrill tariff," which gave to each state as many times thirty thousand acres of land as it had members in Congress, for the support of agricultural colleges and the teaching of mechanical arts. This "Morrill tariff" was of great educational importance, since it was the origin of most of the agricultural colleges and many of the state universities of the United States.

LEE'S INVASION OF THE NORTH

531. Federal Defeats at Cedar Mountain, Bull Run, and Harper's Ferry—Victory at Antietam. McClellan was ordered to re-transport his army by way of Fortress Monroe to the Potomac. No sooner had he withdrawn from Richmond than Lee and Jackson marched (August) toward Washington and utterly defeated the Union forces under Generals Banks and Pope at Cedar Mountain, and in a second battle at Bull Run, before McClellan could arrive and give any assistance. The scattered Union forces fell back to Washington, where McClellan assumed command of both armies and inspired them with renewed courage.

Lee now crossed the Potomac into Maryland with the hope of receiving recruits from this state, and captured Harper's Ferry about the same time that Bragg was making his dash for Louisville in the West. McClellan, meanwhile, following Lee along the north bank of the Potomac, met him at Antietam in the most desperate and bloody one-day battle of the war. Though the Union troops held the field and Lee was obliged to retreat across the Potomac into Virginia, the victory was not decisive, since McClellan lost some thirteen thousand men and Lee about ten thousand. Lee's first invasion of the North was thus a failure. McClellan, however, was blamed by the country for

not pursuing him across the Potomac and breaking up his army. Consequently, Lincoln transferred the command of the Army of the Potomac to General Burnside.

532. Federal Defeat at Fredericksburg. Burnside proved as rash as McClellan had been over-cautious. He crossed the Rappahannock (December) and, throwing his army against Lee, who occupied a strongly fortified position at Fredericksburg, was defeated with an immense loss. The Union army might have been annihilated if Lee had followed up his victory. As it was, Burnside managed to transport his shattered forces to the northern banks of the river. He was now superseded in command by General Hooker, known as "Fighting Joe."

After the battle of Fredericksburg, both armies went into winter quarters on opposite sides of the Rappahannock, where the boys in blue and the boys in gray soon became friends and interchanged little favors across the river. The boys in blue kept up their spirits by singing the inspiring notes of the "Star Spangled Banner," while the boys in gray sang, in turn, as devotedly their song of "Dixie Land." The singing sometimes continued until both armies joined in the strains of "Home Sweet Home," and then retired for the night to dream of loved ones at home.

533. Hostile Attitude of Great Britain. Lincoln was especially depressed because of the result of the war in the East. He looked forward to a victory which would change the attitude of Great Britain. The unfriendly disposition to the Union Government evinced by this nation at the beginning of the war was increased by the "Trent Affair," and now, after McClellan's reverses, it became still more apparent. Shipyards in Great Britain built and equipped a number of swift sailing steamships for Confederate service. With these vessels, most noted among which were the *Alabama*, *Florida*, and *Georgia*, the Confederate authorities succeeded in inflicting a great deal of damage on the Union shipping; in fact, they very nearly cleared the ocean of American commerce.

534. Emancipation. During the war, the slaves who came within the Union lines became a problem. At the suggestion of General Butler, Congress passed a confiscation act by which any property used in aid of the Rebellion could be confiscated, and slaves employed by their masters in any service hostile to the United States could be set free.

According to the President and Congress, the object of the war was to save the Union. Generals Fremont, in Missouri, and Hunter, in the southeast, declared the slaves free; but Lincoln at once disavowed these measures and declared that he could not permit any general to free the slaves, since the responsibility of the act would fall upon the President. He knew that such action would cause some of the men in the border states to withdraw their support from the Union. He had, nevertheless, been thinking seriously of emancipation; but Seward advised him to wait for a Union victory. Antietam served the purpose, and on the 22d of September Lincoln issued a proclamation which gave formal notice that unless the Confederates yielded allegiance to the Union within one hundred days thereafter, he should declare the slaves within their limits free. It is needless to say that the seceded states did not heed this proclamation. Accordingly, on the first of January, 1863, Lincoln issued a formal proclamation by which the slaves of the Confederate states were freed. It at once became a world-known fact that victory for the Federal arms now meant two things—the union of the states and the liberty of the slaves.

Lincoln thought that the Emancipation Proclamation would weaken the South; would prevent foreign recognition of its constitution, and would bring about the final overthrow of slavery. His action was, of course, without constitutional warrant. It was entirely a war measure. Missouri (1863) and Maryland (1864) freed their own slaves, but the abolition of slavery throughout the country could be accomplished only by an amendment to the Constitution. The emancipation of the

slaves won for the North the sympathy of the English people in general, and Great Britain, on the point of acknowledging the Confederacy as an independent power, now abandoned the idea.

Congress, in spite of the Dred Scott Decision, abolished (1862) slavery in the District of Columbia. Compensation amounting to nearly one million dollars was paid to the owners of the slaves. A short time afterwards other acts were passed prohibiting slavery in the territories of the United States and freeing all slaves who escaped into the lines of the Union armies.

535. Colored Troops—Southern Prisons. Before the close of the war the Federal troops enlisted in their armies about eighteen thousand negroes. The Confederates bitterly resented the employment of their former slaves and refused to recognize the negro soldiers or their officers; this led to mutual misunderstanding and ended in stopping all exchange of prisoners. As a result, it became necessary to establish great prison pens for captives of war on both sides, in which thousands of soldiers languished and suffered from disease and famine.

Some of the noted southern prisons were Libby prison in Richmond, Virginia, and Andersonville prison in Georgia. In the famous Libby prison many thousand Federal soldiers were confined. The loss of life from disease and want of food was exceedingly great. In the Andersonville prison the captives were confined within a tract of some twenty acres without shelter from the sun and rain, and in the most filthy and unsanitary conditions. Over twelve thousand eight hundred, or twenty-six per cent of the total number confined, died. The prison superintendent, Wirz, after being court-martialed at the close of the war, was hanged for causing the death of the prisoners by his neglect. In defense of the South, it must, however, be said that the southern army and people were in great distress, in which their prisoners of war necessarily shared.

536. Results of 1862. The two contending armies had about the same relative strength at the end of the year as they had at the beginning; the losses in battles were nearly equal. The fact that nothing had been gained in the East was practically a defeat to the Union, but considering the achievements in the West, the results of the campaigns of 1862 were decidedly in favor of the North.

IMPORTANT BATTLES OF 1862

NAME OF BATTLE	Place Where Fought	Date	Commanding General of Union Army	Commanding General of Confederate Army
Mill Springs.	Mill Springs, Ky.	Jan. 19.	Brig.-Gen. G. H. Thomas	Maj.-Gen. G. B. Crittenden
Fort Donelson	Ft. Donelson, Tenn.	Feb. 16.	Brig.-Gen. U. S. Grant	Brig.-Gens. G. J. Pillow, J. B. Floyd and S. B. Buckner
Pea Ridge. . .	Pea Ridge, Ark. .	March 7-8. . .	Brig.-Gen. S. R. Curtis	Maj.-General E. VanDorn
Merrimac and Monitor	Hampton Roads, Va.	March 9.	Lieutenant J. L. Worden	Flag-Officer F. Buchanan
Shiloh.	Pittsburg Landing, Tenn.	April 6-7. . . .	Brig.-Gen. U. S. Grant	Gen. A. S. Johnston
Island No. 10.	Island No. 10, Tenn.	April 7.	Maj.-General J. Pope	Maj.-Gens. J. P. McCown and W. W. Mackall
New Orleans.	New Orleans, La.	April 25.	Flag-Officer D. G. Farragut	Com. J. K. Mitchell
Fair Oaks. . . .	Fair Oaks, Va.	May 31-June 1	Maj.-Gen. B. F. Butler	Maj.-General M. Lovell
Seven Days' Battle (Va.)	Mechanicsville Savage's Station WhiteOak Swamp Frazier's Farm Malvern Hill	June 26-July 1	Maj.-General McClellan	Gen. J. E. Johnston
Baton Rouge.	Baton Rouge, La.	Aug. 5.	Maj.-General T. Williams	Gen. R. E. Lee
Bull Run (Second)	Bull Run, Va.	Aug. 29-30. . .	Maj.-General J. Pope	Gen. R. E. Lee
Antietam. . . .	Antietam Creek, Md.	Sept. 17.	Maj.-General McClellan	Gen. R. E. Lee
Iuka.	Iuka, Miss.	Sept. 19.	Maj.-Gen. W. S. Rosecrans	Maj.-General S. Price
Corinth.	Corinth, Miss.	Oct. 4.	Maj.-Gen. W. S. Rosecrans	Maj.-General E. VanDorn
Perryville. . .	Perryville, Ky.	Oct. 8.	Maj.-Gen. D. C. Buell	Gen. B. Bragg
Fredericksburg	Fredericksburg, Va.	Dec. 13.	Maj.-Gen. A. E. Burnside	Gen. R. E. Lee
First Vicksburg	Chickasaw Bayou, Miss.	Dec. 28.	Maj.-Gen. W. T. Sherman	Lieut.-Gen. J. C. Pemberton
Murfreesboro.	Stone's River, Tenn.	Dec. 31-Jan. 2, 1863	Maj.-Gen. W. S. Rosecrans	Gen. B. Bragg

THIRD YEAR OF THE WAR—1863

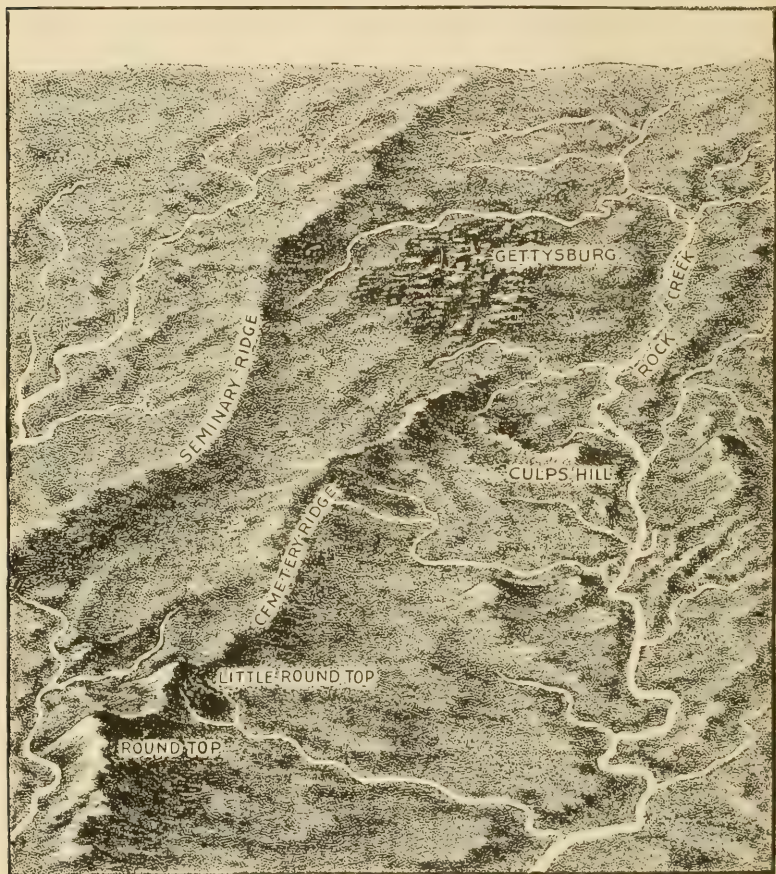
WAR IN THE EAST—LEE'S SECOND INVASION OF THE NORTH

537. Plan—Position of the Armies—Federal Defeat at Chancellorsville. The Federal plan of war for 1863 was the same as that of 1862. Hooker, who superseded General Burnside in the command of the Army of the Potomac (December, 1862), spent some months in reorganizing and recruiting his forces. By May he had a fine army of some one hundred and twenty-five thousand men encamped on the Rappahannock. The Confederates, under Lee, were still in their quarters on the southern bank of the river.

General Hooker at length led the Army of the Potomac out of camp and placed it nearly opposite the line of Lee's communication with the South. The latter, seeing Hooker's intention, attacked and defeated the Federal forces at Chancellorsville and forced them back to the northern bank of the Rappahannock. In this battle the South lost one of her ablest leaders. Stonewall Jackson, while riding back to camp in the evening, was mortally wounded by an accidental shot from one of his own men. Jackson ranks among the world's greatest military commanders.

538. The Great Battle of Gettysburg, the Turning Point of the War. Encouraged by his success, Lee, with an army of seventy thousand men, now set out to invade the North for a second time. He passed around Hooker's army, which was falling back to protect Washington, and proceeded through Maryland, into Pennsylvania. The North was alarmed. The Army of the Potomac, about one hundred thousand strong, led by General George E. Meade, who had superseded Hooker, pursued Lee and endeavored to head him off, if possible, from Harrisburg and Philadelphia. The two mighty armies encountered each other on the famous field of Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, and after a battle of three days (July 1 to 3), the Confederate troops were defeated. They made a very skillful

retreat and were slowly followed by the tired Union troops across Maryland into Virginia, where the two armies con-



GETTYSBURG AND VICINITY

fronted each other on the Rapidan (a branch of the Rappahannock). Here they went into winter quarters.

Gettysburg, the most famous battle of the war, was the only

one fought on northern soil. It put an end to Confederate invasion and may be regarded as the turning point of the war. With it, the cause of the South began to decline, not only in the East, but also in the West—for, only a day after Lee had been defeated by Meade at Gettysburg, Pemberton surrendered Vicksburg to Grant.

539. Lincoln's Gettysburg Address. The battlefield of Gettysburg was made a national cemetery. It was dedicated on November 19, 1863, on which occasion President Lincoln delivered his famous Gettysburg address:

“Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived in Liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal.

Now we are engaged in a great civil war; testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battlefield of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field, as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this.

But, in a larger sense, we cannot dedicate—we cannot consecrate—we cannot hallow—this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here have consecrated it far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us—that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion—that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain—that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom—and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.”

CHAPTER XXXI

FROM THE BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG TO LEE'S SURRENDER AT APPOMATTOX—1863-1865

THE WAR IN THE WEST

540. Situation. It was evident that during the year 1863 the war in the West must center about Vicksburg on the Mississippi, and Chattanooga in eastern Tennessee, for

- (a) Vicksburg, a strongly fortified Confederate city, deprived the Federals of the use of the rivers; furnished the Confederates with an easy passage for troops and supplies, and controlled the only remaining railroad extending through the Confederacy to the far West;
- (b) Chattanooga was so situated as to control eastern Tennessee and the natural passage of Virginia to the Southwest.

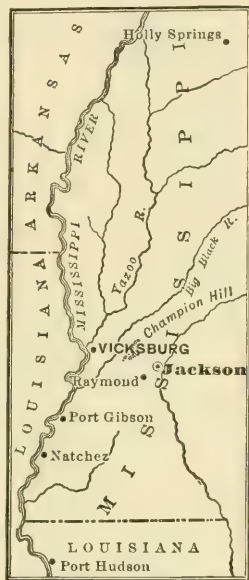
Grant was placed in charge of the Vicksburg territory, and Rosecrans in charge of that about Chattanooga. The Confederate forces in the West were commanded by General Joseph E. Johnston, who had recovered from the wound received at Fair Oaks, while General Pemberton was placed second in command. Owing to a difference existing between the two generals, their forces were divided; Pemberton was stationed at Vicksburg while Johnston had his headquarters at Jackson, ready to intercept Grant's approach on Vicksburg.

541. The Federals Capture Vicksburg. While events in the East had been tending toward the defeat of Lee at Gettysburg, Grant had tried plan after plan for attacking Vicksburg, but without success. Finally Admiral Porter with his gunboats ran the supplies down the river past the batteries in a terrific fire. Grant with his army marched from Holly Springs to Memphis, and having crossed the river, proceeded down the

western bank to Grand Gulf. After joining his forces with Sherman's, he marched westward along the railroad from Jackson, and drove the Confederates into Vicksburg. After a long siege, Pemberton surrendered (July 4). Soon after, Port Hudson and the remaining Confederate posts on the river yielded to General Banks. The Mississippi, from the source to the mouth, was now in control of the Federal government, or, as Lincoln expressed it, "The Father of Waters flowed unvexed to the sea."

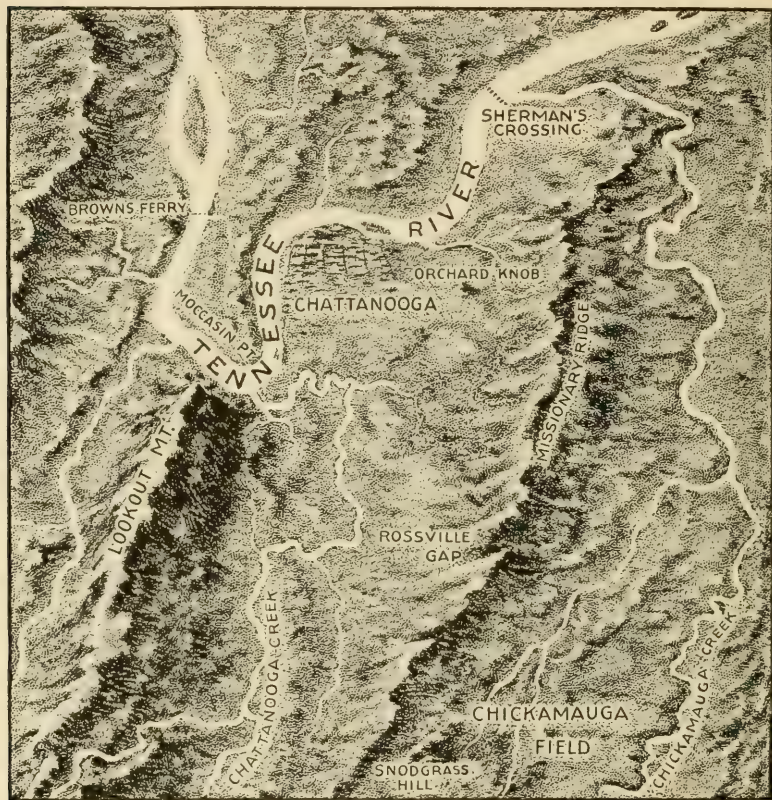
542. The Confederates Abandon Chattanooga—They Defeat the Federals at Chickamauga. After the battle of Murfreesboro, Bragg retreated before Rosecrans into the important stronghold of Chattanooga, and no further decisive military operations took place in Tennessee and Georgia for about six months. Both forces had been greatly weakened by the terrible slaughter during the battles of 1862, while all available troops had been sent to re-enforce the armies, either in Virginia or the Mississippi Valley. Finally, Rosecrans, who had been much criticized for his inactivity, moved southward around Bragg's army, whereupon the Confederate general abandoned Chattanooga and retreated into Georgia toward Atlanta.

Rosecrans pursued Bragg, who, however, having received re-enforcements from Lee, unexpectedly faced about and vigorously attacked (September) the Federals at Chickamauga in one of the most desperate battles of the war. As a result of the battle, the Federal troops fell back to Chattanooga, where they were besieged by General Bragg. About seventeen



VICKSBURG CAMPAIGN

thousand lives were lost on each side. General Thomas now superseded Rosecrans. During this battle, Thomas greatly distinguished himself. Holding his ground against the persistent



CHICKAMAUGA AND LOOKOUT MOUNTAIN

assaults of the enemy, he gave the Union army time to retreat in fair condition to Chattanooga. His skill and gallantry that day won for him the title, "The Rock of Chickamauga."

543. Confederate Defeats at Chattanooga and Knoxville.

Grant, who had been put at the head of all the armies west of the Alleghanies, assumed command at Chattanooga and summoned troops from the East and the West. Hooker came from the Army of the Potomac, Sherman from the Army of the Tennessee, while Thomas led the Army of the Cumberland.

Sherman and Thomas attacked and captured Missionary Ridge, while General Hooker stormed Lookout Mountain in the "battle above the clouds." Communications were opened with Chattanooga and Bragg's forces retreated southward (November) to Dalton, Georgia, where Bragg turned over his command to General Johnston.

While Rosecrans was moving on to Chattanooga, Burnside, who had been superseded by Hooker in command of the Army of the Potomac, moved from Cincinnati into Tennessee and occupied Knoxville. Bragg, confident of victory over the Federals at Chattanooga, sent General Longstreet against Burnside. Sherman, immediately after the capture of Missionary Ridge, hastened to relieve Burnside, but on his approach, Longstreet withdrew through the mountains to Virginia. Both the Federal and the Confederate armies now went into winter quarters.

544. Results of the War in the West. The primary object of the war in the West had been achieved. The Mississippi had been opened by the capture of Vicksburg and Port Hudson, and Chattanooga, the Confederate gateway of the West, had been taken. Grant's successes at Vicksburg and Chattanooga won for him the rank of lieutenant-general and he succeeded Halleck as general-in-chief of all the Union armies.

OPERATIONS ON THE COAST

545. Confederate Blockade-Runners—The Federals Re-capture Fort Sumter. The Confederate blockade-runners did enormous damage to northern commerce during this year. The *Florida* ran the blockade at Mobile and, entering upon its career

of destruction, captured some twenty vessels. It was finally seized in the harbor of Bahia, Brazil. Three of her prizes, however, had been fitted out as cruisers and manned from her officers and crew.

During 1863 the Confederates under Magruder captured Galveston, Texas (January). An attack of Commodore Dupont, with a fleet of nine gunboats on Charleston was repulsed by the Confederates (April). General Gilmore now took charge of the Union troops and destroyed Fort Sumter and some of the fortifications nearby. The Federal blockading ships were thus enabled to enter the harbor, and the port of Charleston was entirely closed. At the close of the year, however, Wilmington and Mobile, with their fortifications, the objective points of most blockade-runners, were still in the possession of the Confederates.

546. Indian Massacres. During the course of the Civil War, the Sioux Indians became dissatisfied because of ill-treatment at the hands of the whites and government officials. Bands of warriors under "Little Crow" and other chiefs, perpetrated horrible massacres in Minnesota, Iowa, and Dakota, in which hundreds of whites were slain and thousands made homeless. After months of pursuit, however, Colonel Sibley finally routed them and captured over five hundred prisoners, of whom thirty-nine were hanged on one scaffold at Mankato, Minnesota (December 26).

547. Results of 1863. The general results of 1863 were much in favor of the North:

- (a) the Union had gained complete control of the Mississippi;
- (b) it held Chattanooga, the Confederate gateway of the West;
- (c) it had repulsed Lee's second invasion of the North at the battle of Gettysburg;
- (d) it had continued the blockade of the Southern ports and closed the port of Charleston.
- (e) the South was fast becoming exhausted, while the North was in the height of its power.

IMPORTANT BATTLES OF 1863

NAME OF BATTLE	Place Where Fought	Date	Commanding General of Union Army	Commanding General of Confederate Army
Chancellorsville	Chancellorsville, Va.	May 2-3.	Major-General J. Hooker	Gen. R. E. Lee
Gettysburg. . .	Gettysburg, Pa.	July 1-3.	Maj.-Gen. G. G. Meade	Gen. R. E. Lee
Vicksburg. . .	Vicksburg, Miss.	July 4.	Maj.-Gen. U. S. Grant	Lieut.-Gen. J. C. Pemberton
Port Hudson.	Port Hudson, La.	July 8.	Maj.-Gen. N. P. Banks	Major-General F. Gardner
Chickamauga.	Chickamauga, Ga.	Sept. 19-20. . .	Maj.-Gen. W. S. Rosecrans	Gen. B. Bragg
Chattanooga.	Chattanooga, Tenn.	Nov. 23-25. . .	Maj.-Gen. U. S. Grant	Gen. B. Bragg
Knoxville. . . .	Knoxville, Tenn.	Dec. 4.	Maj.-Gen. A. E. Burnside	Lieut.-General J. Longstreet

POLITICAL AFFAIRS

548. The Draft Act. As the war dragged on, there was rapid decrease in the number of Union volunteers. Congress, under its constitutional power "to raise and support armies," resorted to a draft act, or Conscription Bill (March 3), to fill up the Union ranks. Accordingly, all able-bodied men between the ages of twenty and forty-five (later eighteen and forty-five) were enrolled by the Federal officers. If the quota assigned by Congress for each state was not supplied by volunteers after a certain period, the deficiency was made up by drawing names from a box as in a lottery. Exemptions from the draft might be secured by furnishing a substitute, or by paying five hundred dollars (later three hundred dollars). Any person not responding to the draft was treated as a deserter. Lincoln called for three hundred thousand troops in May, and in October for three hundred thousand more. The drafting of these new levies aroused much ill-feeling in the North, especially among the laboring classes and those opposed to the war. In many places the officials were resisted. In New York (July) a "draft riot," by a great mob, controlled the city for several days, burning houses and killing negroes. The Federal troops

succeeded in dispersing the mob, but only after more than a thousand rioters had been killed.

In the South, too, a draft act was issued, and here also it met with opposition. It included all able-bodied men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five (later seventeen and fifty). Consequently, all the industries of the Confederacy were left in the hands of men over fifty and of women and children. The draft act resulted in indescribable suffering. In this section there were at times five hundred negroes to a single white man, and yet through these dusky throngs the women and children walked in safety, and the unprotected homes remained unmolested. Though conscious that victory by the South would make their chains enduring, the negroes moved patiently to the fields in the morning to feed the armies, and at night gathered anxiously at the big house to "hear the news from the master."

Supported by the Supreme Court and by Congress, President Lincoln issued an order (1862 and again in 1863) suspending the writ of habeas corpus in cases which concerned treasonable acts, disloyal speeches, prisoners of war, deserters, those resisting drafts, and offenders against military or naval service. The many arbitrary arrests that were made after the suspension of the writ of habeas corpus caused much indignation throughout the country.

549. Opposition to the War. By this time opposition to the war in the North was becoming very strong. Though many (Republicans and war Democrats) supported Lincoln's administration, a great number of the people (peace Democrats) did not like emancipation, confiscation, the suspension of the writ of habeas corpus, and the suppression of newspapers. They saw in the President's procedures a dangerous one-man power. Besides, an immense debt was accumulating, taxation was becoming heavy, thousands of lives were being sacrificed, and there was, as yet, no sign of the end of the conflict.

A secret society, known as the "Knights of the Golden Circle," was organized for the purpose of opposing the war.

Its members, known as "Copperheads" or "Butternuts," generally sympathized with the South. They soon became very numerous in the states of Ohio and Indiana.

550. The Vallandigham Case. Clement L. Vallandigham, a former congressman from Ohio, and a most conspicuous opponent of the draft act, was an extreme sympathizer with the Confederacy, and unsparingly denounced the President and the government. He was convicted and imprisoned by a military commission appointed by General Burnside. Claiming to have been unlawfully convicted, he appealed to the Supreme Court, which, however, decided that it had no constitutional right to review proceedings ordered by a general officer of the United States army in time of war. Lincoln changed Vallandigham's sentence of imprisonment to banishment to the Confederacy. The exile, escaping in a blockade-runner, made his way to Canada. While there, he was nominated for the governorship of his state, but was defeated by a large majority. The next year he returned to Ohio, but was not again molested.

551. Legal Tender and Banking Acts. Congress passed (1862) the Legal Tender Act, which authorized the issue of small promissory notes, similar to bank notes; these, from their color, were called greenbacks. They were made legal tender, that is, any debtor could offer them instead of gold in discharge of a debt and the creditor was forced to accept them. It was felt that confidence in the government would be best sustained, and its bonds, or promises, more readily taken if the interest on the national debt could be paid in coin. To secure the necessary coin for this purpose, all customhouse duties or tariffs had to be paid in gold. This caused nearly all coin, even dimes and quarters, to disappear from circulation. For a short time postage stamps served as small change, but soon Congress issued little notes for the purpose.

The value of the greenbacks fluctuated according to the extent of the people's faith that the government could ever redeem them, or again, according to the fortunes of the war—

a Federal victory raising their value, a Confederate success decreasing it. Thus the greenback dollar, which was equivalent to ninety-eight cents in 1862, fell to about seventy-five cents in 1863, and by July, 1864, it was worth scarcely more than thirty-five cents. Three hundred million dollars in greenbacks were issued and put into circulation during the Civil War. These greenbacks, or notes, are still in circulation, although they have, of course, been many times renewed.

Congress during this year passed a National Bank Act by which a company of five or more persons with a certain amount of capital could establish a bank. The banking company was obliged to deposit government bonds as security in the United States treasury, and was permitted to issue notes to the extent of ninety per cent of its bonds. The government thus held the bonds as security for the notes in case of the bank's failure. This National Bank Act attained three great objects:

- (a) it secured a market for national bonds;
- (b) it provided the country with a uniform and safe currency;
- (c) it established the confidence of the people in the government.

Salmon P. Chase, secretary of the treasury, was the author of the banking and legal tender acts, and subsequently became known as the "Father of Greenbacks."

FOURTH AND LAST YEAR OF THE WAR—1864

552. Position of the Armies—Union Plan. At the beginning of 1864, the last year of the war, Grant was made commander-in-chief of all the Union armies on both sides of the Alleghanies. He assumed direct control of the operations in Virginia and confided the armies of the West, centered at Chattanooga, to General Sherman. The Confederates had now but two chief centers of power—one at Dalton, Georgia, under the direction of General Johnston, and another at Richmond, Virginia, under General Lee. Early in the spring, Grant and Sherman met to arrange a plan for final movements.

Sherman with an army of one hundred thousand men, was

to defeat Johnston and march to the sea, while Grant, with one hundred and twenty thousand men, was to move to Virginia and attack Lee. Thus coöperating, they were to march forth on the same day (May 4) in order to prevent the Confederate forces from giving aid to one another.

CAMPAIGNS IN TENNESSEE AND GEORGIA

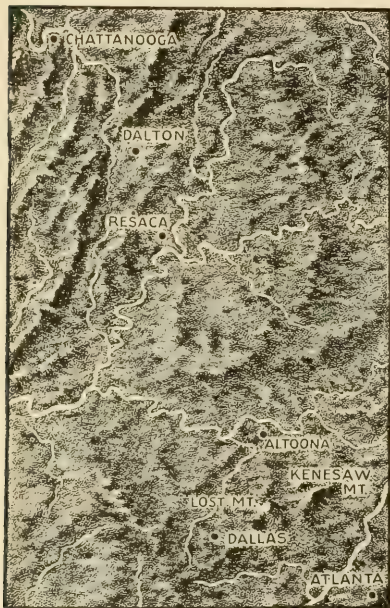
553. Federal Capture of Atlanta. In accordance with the plans of the two Union generals, Sherman moved from Chattanooga against Johnston, who was strongly intrenched at Dalton, Georgia. After outflanking Johnston at numerous places and defeating him in the pitched battles of Dalton, Resaca, Dallas, and Kenesaw Mountain, he at length, after a perilous four-month march, reached Atlanta, having sustained a loss of over thirty-one thousand men.

Georgia was the workshop, the storehouse, granary, and arsenal of the Confederacy, and Atlanta was the center from which all the necessities were furnished to the southern armies. Hence, by capturing it, the Union forces would strike the Confederacy an almost fatal blow. Its capture, however, was not an easy task. The Union center of supplies was Nashville, over a hundred miles from Chattanooga, and every mile of advance by the Federal troops into Georgia took them farther away from their base of supplies. To add to the difficulty, the country was rough and mountainous; there was, furthermore, only a single line of railway over which supplies for the army could be transported, and Sherman was, consequently, compelled to leave parts of his army to protect this line against the enemy. At this juncture, the Confederate government, disapproving of Johnston's policy of constant retreat, appointed Hood to supersede him. Hood proved as rash as Johnston had been cautious. He made three tremendous attacks upon Sherman at Atlanta, only to be defeated and finally compelled to evacuate the city. Hood now started northwestward toward Nashville, hoping thus to draw Sherman back to Tennessee.

Sherman, suspecting Hood's strategy, sent Thomas to hold Nashville, and followed Hood just long enough to be sure that he was really moving. He then returned to Atlanta, tearing up railroads and cutting telegraph wires as he went.

554. Sherman's March. After burning Atlanta Sherman started out on his three hundred-mile march to the sea. His army

of sixty thousand men, marching in four columns, covered a path sixty miles in width. Railroads were torn up; buildings were burned; crops were destroyed; in fact, the whole region was left a barren waste to both man and beast. By the middle of December, Sherman, having reached the sea, stormed Fort McAllister, which guarded Savannah, and a week later captured the city itself. The effect of this march to the sea was of great importance to the North. The eastern part of the already sundered Confederacy was again cut in two, and immense supplies of provisions were captured.



CHATTANOOGA TO ATLANTA

Sherman sent the news of the capture of Savannah to the President in the following message: "I beg to present you as a Christmas gift the city of Savannah, with one hundred and fifty heavy guns and plenty of ammunition; also about twenty-five thousand bales of cotton."

555. The Federal Victory at Nashville. Hood, having tried in vain to draw Sherman from Georgia, crossed the Tennessee,

and after severe fighting at Franklin, pushed on to Nashville, where he shut up General Thomas within the fortifications. Thomas, after waiting two weeks, suddenly attacked Hood (December). The desperate two days' battle which followed resulted in the defeat of the entire Confederate army and ended the war in the West.

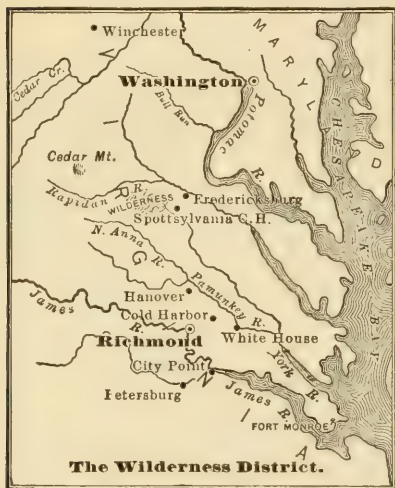
556. Sherman Marches Northward. General Sherman, after his army had rested for about a month, started (February) northward toward the Carolinas to join Grant in Virginia. On his way thither he passed through South Carolina and captured Columbia, its capital. In order to strengthen Johnston's army in checking Sherman's advance, the Confederates were now obliged to evacuate Charleston. Thence Sherman proceeded northward, encountering the Confederates at Averysboro and Bentonville and compelling them to withdraw to Raleigh. He now moved on unmolested to Goldsboro, where he was joined by General Schofield. General Johnston surrendered Raleigh a few days later, and the Union forces advanced toward Washington to join General Grant in Virginia.



557. Situation of Grant's Forces—His Plan. It will be remembered that all the Union forces were to advance on the same day (May 4), and that each was to keep its opponent so occupied that one Confederate army could not re-enforce the other. Thus it was hoped the war could be ended in the course of the summer. We have already followed Sherman on his march to the sea. Let us now return to Grant on the Rappahannock. His plan of advance against Lee in Virginia was three-fold: he himself would move directly toward Richmond, attack-

ing Lee at every favorable opportunity on the way thither; at the same time General Butler was to move against Richmond by the James River; while Franz Sigel was to confront the enemy in the Shenandoah Valley.

558. The Indecisive Battles of the Wilderness and Spottsylvania. Grant's army of about one hundred and twenty thousand, when at length ready for the final movement on Richmond, crossed the river (May) and entered the Wilderness, a densely wooded region south of Chancellorsville. Here the two armies met in a hotly contested, but undecided, two days' battle.



After the second day's fighting, Grant telegraphed President Lincoln, "I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer." He meant that he would hammer and batter Lee's lines until he broke through by sheer fighting force and weight of numbers. This process of fighting was costing Grant two or three men to Lee's one.

After a day's rest in the Wilderness, Grant marched toward Richmond and again encountered Lee in another battle of two days' terrible fighting at Spottsylvania Courthouse. The battles of the Wilderness and Spottsylvania were among the bloodiest of the war. In the Wilderness, the timber and undergrowth rendered all orderly movement of the troops impossible. The opposing forces mowed each other down with the most deadly fire. Had the battle of Spottsylvania continued another day, it would have surpassed that of Gettysburg in loss of life.



WILLIAM T. SHERMAN
ULYSSES S. GRANT

DAVID G. FARRAGUT
PHILIP H. SHERIDAN

UNION COMMANDERS

559. Federal Defeats at Cold Harbor and Petersburg.

Grant's purpose was to get between Lee's army and Richmond, but in his attempts to do so he was each time out-generaled by Lee, who always skillfully managed to fall back to a new line of defense. These movements brought on the battle of Cold Harbor, where the Confederates were strongly intrenched. Within twenty minutes the Union army was repulsed with a loss of over eight thousand. The Confederates behind their entrenchments lost only about two thousand.

Under cover of continual attacks on Lee's lines, Grant skillfully swung his entire army across the James, with the purpose of a direct attack on Richmond from the south. He was, however, repulsed (July) with great loss at the strongly fortified city of Petersburg, some twenty miles south of Richmond, on the Appomattox River. In this engagement, the Federal loss was again much greater than that of the Confederates.

In the assault on Petersburg, the Federals mined the defenses around the city and exploded about four tons of gunpowder. The Confederate guns and men were thrown high into the air but, owing to some blunder, the Federal troops were not ready to make the assault through the breach, and in consequence failed to carry the works. From the pit caused by the explosion the engagement received the name "Battle of the Crater."

560. Raids in the Shenandoah—Butler at Bermuda Hundred.

Lee, in order to divert Grant's attention from Richmond, sent General Jubal Early, with about twenty thousand veterans, down the Shenandoah Valley to threaten Washington. Early made a brilliant dash, drove the Federals under Sigel and Hunter into Virginia, defeated General Lew Wallace at Monocacy, and came within a few miles of the city, even within sight of the dome of the capitol. He next sent a detachment into Pennsylvania, which succeeded in burning the town of Chambersburg.

Detaching General Philip Sheridan, "Little Phil," commander of the cavalry of the Potomac, Grant sent him against Early. Sheridan defeated the Confederates (September) in a long and hard-fought battle at Winchester and again at Fisher's Hill, and drove them through the gaps of the Blue Ridge. But the Shenandoah Valley was too valuable for the Confederates to lose. Early suddenly returned, routed the Union forces at Cedar Creek, and sent them fleeing for their lives toward Winchester, some fourteen miles distant. Sheridan, who was returning from Washington, had chanced to stop off for the night at Winchester; he heard the cannonading, and immediately leaped on his horse and dashed toward the scene of defeat. He met the fugitives, urged them to halt, reformed their lines, and gallantly led them back to battle and to victory. In accordance with Grant's orders, Sheridan desolated the beautiful valley, burned houses, barns, mills, and grain, and drove away live stock of every kind. It is said that after his raid not even a crow could have found its living in the valley. Within sixteen days Sheridan had cleared the Shenandoah Valley of the Confederates; had rendered the region a barren waste, and was back again with the Army of the Potomac. (Read "Sheridan's Ride" by Buchanan Read.)

Butler was to move against Richmond by way of the James River. However, the majority of his forces, about thirty-six thousand, was forced by the Confederates into a bend of the river at Bermuda Hundred, and there, as Grant expressed it, "bottled up."

561. Lincoln Is Re-elected—New States. While the war was still in progress, the contest for the presidency absorbed the attention of the people. Lincoln, who, in 1861, had been elected with great enthusiasm by the Republican party, had lost much of his popularity. The Democrats openly denounced him and advocated peace at any price. They blamed the President for freeing the slaves, for suspending the writ of habeas corpus, for the draft, for enlisting colored troops, for the Vallandigham

ham case, for the removal of McClellan, and for not ending the war. They nominated George B. McClellan as their candidate.

Up to a few weeks before the election it was generally believed that Lincoln would be defeated, but the tide suddenly turned in his favor when the stirring news of Sherman's capture of Atlanta, Farragut's famous exploit at Mobile, and Sheridan's complete success in the Shenandoah Valley proved that the President's war policy was not a failure. At the election, Lincoln came forth as the triumphant candidate. He received a majority of one hundred and ninety-one electoral votes over McClellan, the Democratic nominee. Andrew Johnson was elected Vice-president.

Two new states were admitted during this year of the war (1864): West Virginia as the thirty-fifth state, and Nevada as the thirty-sixth.

OPERATIONS ON THE COAST

562. The Kearsarge Captures the Alabama. As has been previously told, England assisted the Confederacy by fitting out vessels which did great injury to the Union maritime commerce. Among these cruisers the most famous was the *Alabama*, commanded by Captain Semmes. It destroyed no less than sixty-six United States merchantmen and ten million dollars' worth of property. After a long and destructive cruise in the waters of the West Indies, Brazil, and the East Indies, the *Alabama* was at last (June) brought to bay off the French port, Cherbourg, by the *Kearsarge*, a United States warship, commanded by the brave and skillful Captain Winslow. A fierce one-hour duel ensued, in which the *Alabama* was shattered and sunk.

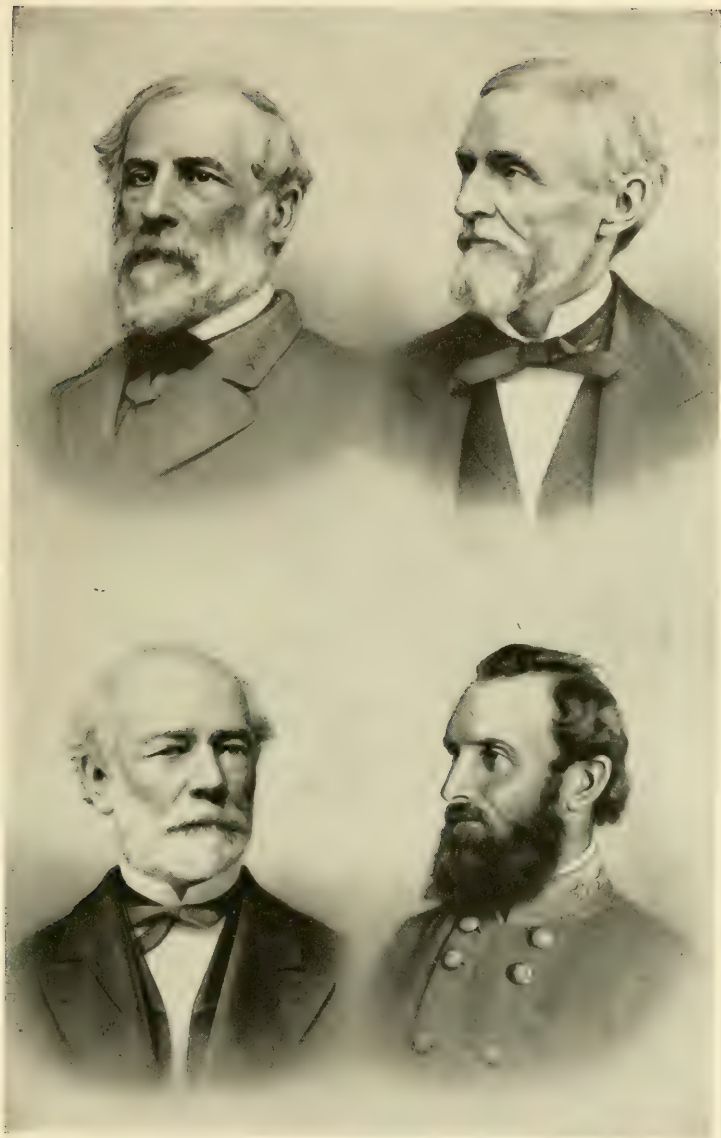
563. The Federals Capture Mobile and Fort Fisher. While Grant was campaigning against Lee in Virginia, and Sherman against Hooker in Georgia, Admiral Farragut planned the capture of Mobile. With his strong fleet of fourteen wooden

vessels and five monitors, he determined (August) to make a desperate attempt to run past the two powerful forts, Gaines and Morgan, which guarded the city. After he had lashed the Union vessels in pairs for mutual assistance, Farragut tied himself to the rigging of his ship, where he could oversee every move of the battle. After a desperate conflict of some hours, the Confederate iron ram *Tennessee* was taken, while the other vessels were either captured or put to flight, and Mobile was at length compelled to surrender.

Some months after the capture of Mobile, a powerful naval fleet under Admiral Porter, accompanied by a land force under General Butler, undertook (December) the capture of Fort Fisher, which defended the harbor of Wilmington, South Carolina. When this attack failed, the command of the land forces was given to General Terry, and another attempt to take the fort was planned. Accordingly, a month later the Union land and naval forces made a simultaneous attack and took (January) the fort by storm. With this victory, the last Confederate channel of intercourse with foreign countries was closed. The capture of Fort Fisher is regarded as one of the most brilliant exploits of the war.

IMPORTANT BATTLES OF 1864

NAME OF BATTLE	Place Where Fought	Date	Commanding General of Union Army	Commanding General of Confederate Army
Wilderness...	Wilderness, Va.	May 5-6.....	Lieut.-Gen. U. S. Grant	Gen. R. E. Lee
Resaca.....	Resaca, Ga.	May 14-15...	Maj.-Gen. W. T. Sherman	Gen. J. E. Johnston
Cold Harbor..	Cold Harbor, Va.	June 3.....	Lieut.-Gen. U. S. Grant	Gen. R. E. Lee
Atlanta.....	Atlanta, Ga.	July 22.....	Maj.-Gen. W. T. Sherman	Gen. J. E. Johnston
Petersburg...	Petersburg, Va.	July 30.....	Lieut.-Gen. U. S. Grant	Gen. R. E. Lee
Mobile Bay...	Mobile, Ala.	Aug. 5.....	Rear-Admiral D. G. Farragut	Admiral F. Buchanan
Winchester...	Winchester, Va.	Oct. 19.....	Maj.-Gen. P. H. Sheridan	Lieut.-Gen. J. A. Early
Cedar Creek..	Cedar Creek, Va.	Oct. 19.....	Maj.-Gen. P. H. Sheridan	Lieut.-Gen. J. A. Early
Nashville....	Nashville, Tenn.	Dec. 15.....	Maj.-Gen. G. H. Thomas	Gen. J. B. Hood



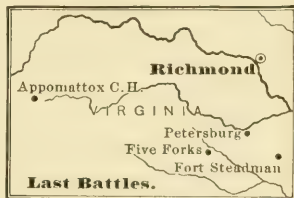
ROBERT E. LEE
JOSEPH E. JOHNSTON

JEFFERSON DAVIS
THOMAS J. JACKSON

CONFEDERATE LEADERS

CLOSE OF GRANT'S OVERLAND CAMPAIGN

564. The Federals Compel the Confederates to Evacuate Richmond. Grant, since his unsuccessful attempt on Petersburg in the "Battle of the Crater" (June, 1864), had closely besieged Petersburg and Richmond. Not wishing to wait for Sherman's arrival from the South, he made a successful assault (April 1, 1865) with troops under Sheridan against the Confederate forces at Five Forks. The next day Grant made a general attack on Petersburg, whereupon Lee evacuated both Petersburg and Richmond (April 3), and the Federal troops took possession of the Confederate capital. Lee retreated with the purpose of bringing his own and Johnston's forces together for a final stand. Grant's forces pursued him closely. Lee made the utmost effort to escape with his army southward, but he was almost surrounded by Grant's forces, while Sherman, coming up from Raleigh, completely blocked his retreat to the South. The Confederates had for many days lived on parched corn and young shoots of trees, and many of them dropped their guns from exhaustion.



565. The Surrender of the Confederate Armies. Thus pressed on all sides, Lee, not wishing to cause needless bloodshed, surrendered to Grant at Appomattox Courthouse (April 9, 1865).

The two great commanders met in the McLean home, one of the largest of the five houses in Appomattox, to arrange the terms of surrender. By these terms:

- (a) the Confederate soldiers and officers were to be permitted to go home on their parole not to take up arms again until properly exchanged;
- (b) all the Confederate officers should be allowed to retain their side arms, horses, and baggage; and the privates

who owned horses and mules should be permitted to take them home—"they will need them for the spring plowing," said Grant;

(c) five days' rations should be given to Lee's famished soldiers.

Johnston surrendered to Sherman (April 26), and with the exception of a few minor conflicts elsewhere in the South, the Civil War, which had so long desolated the country, was at an end.

IMPORTANT BATTLES OF 1865

NAME OF BATTLE	Place Where Fought	Date	Commanding General of Union Army	Commanding General of Confederate Army
Fort Fisher..	Fort Fisher, N.C.	Jan. 15.	Maj.-Gen. A. H. Terry	Gen. B. Bragg
Mobile.	Mobile, Ala.	March 17- April 12. . .	Maj.-Gen. E. R. Canby	Maj.-Gen. D. H. Maury
Bentonville..	Bentonville, N.C.	March 19-21	Maj.-Gen. W. T. Sherman	Gen. J. E. Johnston
Five Forks...	Five Forks, Va.	April 1.	Maj.-Gen. P. H. Sheridan	Maj.-Gen. G. E. Pickett
Appomattox Campaign	Richmond, Va.	April 9	Lieut.-Gen. U. S. Grant	Gen. R. E. Lee

566. The Confederate President and Officers. As soon as Richmond was evacuated, the officers of the Confederate government, hoping to escape to foreign shores, fled in various directions toward the coast. Jefferson Davis endeavored to escape capture by fleeing through the Carolinas into Georgia, but was taken at Irvinville (May 10, 1865). He was confined in Fortress Monroe until released on bail (1867). No other officer of the Confederate government was either brought to trial or prosecuted. Only one Confederate was put to death at the close of the war—the keeper of the Andersonville prison.

567. Lincoln Is Assassinated. The news that the war had ended was received with an outburst of joy in the North. In his second inaugural address, Lincoln had given expression to sentiments most suited to soothe and heal the nation's wounds. The following are his closing words: "With malice toward

none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in; to bind up the nation's wounds; to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widow and his orphan—to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations." But, alas, the joy of the nation was only too soon changed into the deepest sorrow by the assassination of President Lincoln at Ford's Theater in Washington, April 14, 1865 (Good Friday). Lincoln was sitting in his private box in the theater, surrounded by his family and friends, when John Wilkes Booth, an actor, forced his way into the box and shot the President through the head. He then leaped over the railing upon the stage, and shouting, "*Sic semper tyrannis*" (Thus ever to tyrants—the motto of Virginia), rushed from the building. The President never regained consciousness and died the next morning.

No one was less deserving than President Lincoln of the reproachful title of "tyrant" ascribed to him by the assassin. No other man in all our political history had come so near to the hearts of the common people. If Washington is called the "Father of the People," Lincoln may well be termed their "Elder Brother." Trained in the hard school of poverty and want, and little used to refinements of society, he was gifted with great common sense, kindness, sincerity, farsightedness, shrewdness, and steadfastness of purpose. He showed the highest skill in dealing with his enemies and opponents and in interpreting the half-expressed will of the people; complete master of himself, he held to his convictions with an iron will. What wonder then that this honest, simple man won the admiration of the masses and rose to be, as Stanton asserted, one of the "most perfect rulers of men the world has ever seen." Without his masterly hand on the reins of government in that critical period when the warring sections of a disunited country were grappling in the deadly conflict of civil war, the Union, many believe, would not have been saved.

The whole nation mourned over the death of the great leader. His body was borne, midst the expressions of the deepest grief and affection, from Washington through the chief cities of the East and westward to Springfield, Illinois, where it was laid in its final resting place.

About the same time Lincoln was shot, another assassin attempted to murder Secretary Seward, who was lying ill at his home. There had been a plot to murder several of the leaders of the government. Booth was hunted down and finally shot. Four other conspirators were hanged and three imprisoned for life.

568. Closing Events of the War. Before the Union soldiers disbanded, as many of them as possible marched to Washington for a general review before the President, Congress, and an immense throng of people. During two days the veterans under Grant and Sherman marched in one continuous column, twenty men deep and about thirty miles long, down Pennsylvania Avenue and then disbanded.

569. The Grand Army of the Republic. During the winter of 1865-66 an association called the Grand Army of the Republic (G.A.R.) was formed by the Federal soldiers and sailors of the Civil War. The object of this organization was to render charity and assistance to the disabled veterans and the families of those dead, and to keep alive military traditions and foster the spirit of patriotism. Grand Army posts exist in nearly every city in the North and West, and hold national conventions annually. The membership of the Grand Army in 1912 numbered more than one hundred and sixty-three thousand, but this number is fast decreasing by deaths.

570. Result of the War. The Civil War was the greatest of its kind in history. Now that it was ended, the question arose, was it worth the awful sacrifice of life and property? Though it is quite impossible for anyone to answer this question, the war, undoubtedly, swept away many evils and had the following far-reaching results:

- (a) the Union was preserved and the claim to the right of secession abandoned;
- (b) slavery was forever abolished by the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution (December, 1865).

571. Christian and Sanitary Commission. The armies and navies were not the only agents distinguished for heroism during the long struggle of the Civil War. Humane and charitable men and women organized sanitary and Christian commissions. They made it their duty to provide sick and wounded soldiers with every possible relief and comfort, and the dead with proper burial. This noble work was supported by liberal contributions and by the income of "sanitary fairs" held in the principal towns and cities. Hundreds of women who had grown up amidst ease and luxury now prepared with their own hands bandages for the wounded, and moved about on the battlefield, in the camp, and in hospitals, nursing the sick and wounded. The women of the South, the scene of most of the war, bore the greatest privations. They even shared their meager food supplies with sick and famished soldiers.

572. Catholicity and the Civil War. With the end of the Civil War a new era dawned for Catholicity. The terrible conflict had shaken, as it were, the very foundation of the nation; house had been divided against house, and brother had been striving against brother. Half the country had been laid waste and rendered desolate; on every side were weariness and exhaustion, and a longing for peace. But the Catholic Church had shed her brilliant light of charity through the gloom of war, and at the end of the struggle still stood undiminished in strength and unbroken in unity—the pride of her children and the admiration of thousands who, before the war, had looked upon her progress with jealous concern.

Great number of Protestants, who knew little of the Church, had been prejudiced against her. However, they had been brought into intimate contact with Catholics during the war, and had seen enough of the Church and her sublime mission

to make them forget their bigotry, which now gave way to genuine admiration. There was probably not a village throughout the land in which there could not be found some brave non-Catholic soldier who spoke the praises of some Catholic priest or Sister of Charity or noble Catholic fellow soldier.

Catholics were, it is true, divided on political grounds. They were all, however, united in faith, and Catholicity took no sides, but sent her heroes of charity to both armies. The Church sent her priests from the parish and the college, her nuns from the orphan asylums and schoolrooms, to the camp, the hospital, the prison, and the bloody battlefield. Meanwhile her places of worship resounded with earnest petitions to Heaven for peace and with solemn Requiems for the fallen.

573. Great Commanders. The Civil War brought to the front some able commanders. Of the Union generals, McClellan's services in organizing the Army of the Potomac were invaluable, but his excessive caution and the friction between the authorities at Washington and himself led to disappointments in his achievements against the Confederates. He was, notwithstanding, very popular with the soldiers, by whom he was called "Little Mac." Grant, though not remarkable for his military tactics, is noted for his indomitable pluck and for the fact that the three eventful surrenders—Donelson, Vicksburg, and Appomattox—were all due to him. Next may be mentioned Sherman, Sheridan, Philip Kearny, and Farragut.

On the southern side Lee was by far the ablest general, and it is commonly believed that he had no equal in the North. He was the son of "Lighthorse Harry" of Revolutionary fame. He was greatly loved by his soldiers and by the southern people, and this devotion so increased after the war that he always and everywhere received the most touching demonstrations of respect and affection. Stonewall Jackson was famous as a man of wonderful resources and power. Albert Sydney Johnston, who was developing into the ablest com-

mander of the South, died an untimely death at Pittsburg Landing. Next to these may be ranked Pemberton and Joseph E. Johnston.

574. Catholic Officers. The valor and patriotism of Catholics again maintained a position corresponding with their earlier history. Side by side with the names of Charles Carroll, Barry, Lafayette, Moylan, Fitzsimmons, and Archbishop Carroll may be found those of Sheridan, Rosecrans, Kearny, Mulligan, and Archbishop Hughes. Among the many other Catholic officers not mentioned in our text were Shields, Meagher, Newton, Ewing, Sands, Hunt, Stone, McMahon, and numerous others, the mention of whom would make this list too long.

At the head of the list of Catholic officers who acquired distinction in the war may be placed General Philip Sheridan. After graduating with honor from West Point, he distinguished himself during the Civil War as commander at Booneville, Perryville, Stone River, Missionary Ridge, and finally at Appomattox, where General Lee surrendered to him the Confederate flag. Upon the declaration of peace he received, with Grant and Sherman, the applause of his countrymen. Nor did the nation think any less of the hero of Winchester because he worshiped God in a Catholic Church and had his children educated in the Catholic Academy of the Visitation nuns.

Next on the list of our Catholic generals is Rosecrans, the last survivor of that remarkable quartet—Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, and Rosecrans. He greatly distinguished himself in the numerous eventful campaigns carried on by the Army of the Cumberland. He was an outspoken and practical Catholic, and it was a common occurrence with him to have the sacrifice of the Mass offered at his headquarters in the field. Sheridan says of him that "a visitor to the city of Washington will find no more regular attendant at Mass in that decidedly Catholic city than Rosecrans—gallant and grand 'Old Rosey,' the hero and idol of the Army of the Cumberland."

CHRONOLOGICAL REVIEW

1861-1865

Abraham Lincoln's Administration (1861-1865)—Republican.
1861. Abraham Lincoln is inaugurated as the sixteenth President.

The Civil War begins with the attack on Fort Sumter (April 12).

Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee join the Confederacy.

Lincoln calls for seventy-five thousand volunteers (April 15). Davis calls for volunteers (April 17).

The attack on the Sixth Massachusetts regiment, while passing through Baltimore, occasions the first bloodshed of the Civil War (April 19).

Lincoln proclaims a blockade of the southern ports (April 19).

General Scott is appointed first in command of the Union forces (April).

The Confederates under Beauregard defeat the Federals under McDowell at Bull Run (July).

The Federals under Baker are defeated at Big Bethel (June).

The Federals under Lyon are defeated in the battles of Booneville (June) and again at Wilson's Creek (August).

The Federals under Sigel are defeated by the Confederates under Price at Carthage (July).

The Unionists are defeated at the battle of Ball's Bluff (October).

The "Trent Affair" occurs (November).

- General Halleck supersedes Scott in command of the Union forces (November).
1862. The Federals under Grant and Foote defeat the Confederates in the battles of Forts Henry and Donelson (February).
- The Confederate ironclad *Merrimac* is defeated in Hampton Roads by the Union ironclad *Monitor* (March).
- The Confederates under Van Dorn are defeated by the Unionists under Sigel at Pea Ridge (March).
- The Confederates under Johnston are defeated by the Federals under Grant at Shiloh (April).
- New Orleans is captured by the Union fleet under Farragut (April).
- The Federals open the Mississippi to Vicksburg by taking Island No. 10, Fort Pillow, and Memphis (April-June).
- General McClellan supersedes Halleck.
- The Federals under McClellan win the battles of Williamsburg, Fair Oaks, and the Seven Days' Battles (May-June).
- Jackson makes a dashing raid through the Shenandoah Valley.
- The Federals under Pope are defeated by the Confederates under Jackson at Cedar Mountain, and again under Lee at Bull Run (August).
- The Confederates under Lee win the battle of Harper's Ferry, but are defeated by McClellan at Antietam (September).
- President Lincoln suspends the writ of habeas corpus (September).
- Slavery is abolished in the District of Columbia (September).
- The first issue of greenbacks is made.
- The Federals under Rosecrans win the battles of Iuka and Corinth (September-October).

General Bragg invades Kentucky and is defeated by the Federals at Perryville and Murfreesboro.

General Burnside supersedes McClellan in command (November).

The Federals under Burnside are defeated by the Confederates under Lee at Fredericksburg (December).

General Hooker supersedes Burnside in command (December).

1863. Lincoln issues the Emancipation Proclamation (January 1).

The Federals under Hooker are defeated by the Confederates under Lee at Chancellorsville (May).

Stonewall Jackson is accidentally shot by his own men at the battle of Chancellorsville.

General Meade supersedes Hooker in command (June).

West Virginia is admitted to the Union as the thirty-fifth state (June).

The Federals under Meade defeat the Confederates under Lee at Gettysburg (July). The battle becomes the turning point of the war.

The Confederates under Lee retreat into Virginia.

The Federals under Grant capture Vicksburg (July).

The Confederates under Pemberton surrender Port Hudson and the remaining Confederate posts on the Mississippi River to General Banks (July).

The Draft Riot occurs in New York City (July).

The Federals under Rosecrans are defeated by the Confederates under Bragg in the desperate battle at Chickamauga (September).

Gettysburg is made a national cemetery and Lincoln makes his famous Gettysburg address (November).

Generals Sherman and Thomas capture Missionary Ridge, while Hooker captures Lookout Mountain (November).

The Federals under Burnside defeat the Confederates

under Longstreet at Knoxville (November).

The Federals under Dupont fail to take Charleston, but destroy Fort Sumter and blockade the port.

Congress passes the National Banking Act.

1864. Archbishop Hughes dies (January).

General Grant is made lieutenant-general (March).

General Sherman in his march from Chattanooga to Atlanta takes, in succession, Resaca, Dallas, Kenesaw Mountain, and Atlanta (May-November).

The Union forces under General Grant, and the Confederates under Lee, fight an indecisive battle at the Wilderness, but Grant attacks them again in the battles of Spottsylvania and Cold Harbor (May-July).

The Union vessel *Kearsarge* captures and sinks the Confederate vessel *Alabama* (June).

Early begins his famous raid in the Shenandoah Valley (July).

The Federals under Farragut capture Mobile Bay (August).

Grant sends General Sheridan against Early.

The Federals under Sheridan win the hard-fought battles at Winchester, Fisher's Hill, and Blue Ridge (September).

Nevada is admitted to the Union as the thirty-sixth state (October).

President Lincoln is re-elected (November).

The Federals under Thomas attack and defeat the Confederates under Hood at Nashville (December).

The Confederates are defeated by a Union naval fleet under Admiral Porter at Fort Fisher (December).

General Sherman reaches the sea and captures Savannah (December).

1865. Sherman marches northward through the Carolinas and secures possession of Charleston, Columbia, Bentonville, Averysboro, and Raleigh (February).

The Federals under Grant defeat the Confederates under Lee in the battles of Five Forks and Petersburg, and finally compel them to evacuate Richmond (July).

The Confederate forces under General Lee surrender to General Grant at Appomattox Courthouse and lay down their arms (April 9).

President Lincoln is assassinated by Wilkes Booth (April 14).

Andrew Johnson is inaugurated as the seventeenth President (April 15).

PERIOD OF RECONSTRUCTION AND EXPANSION

CHAPTER XXXII

ANDREW JOHNSON'S ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1865-1869

575. Extent of the Period. The period of reconstruction and expansion extends from the close of the Civil War in 1865 to the present time. It covers chiefly the problems growing out of the Civil War, the increase in the number of states and dependencies since the Civil War, and the general progress of the country.

576. The Successor of Lincoln. The untimely death of President Lincoln produced no disorder in the affairs of the government. Within three hours Andrew Johnson, the Vice-president, quietly assumed the duties of the presidency. He retained Lincoln's cabinet, and his views relative to reconstructing the Union were similar to those of Lincoln. Still, the change of presidents made a great difference in the manner of treating the all-important and difficult problems now confronting the nation.

Andrew Johnson (1808-1875) was a native of North Carolina, but later moved to Tennessee. He was, like Lincoln, of humble birth, and had risen to high posts of public trust—congressman, Governor of Tennessee, Vice-president—but his powers had never been schooled or refined as Lincoln's had been. He had not a touch of Lincoln's genius for understanding and persuading men. He always retained his native

roughness; he was rash and headstrong. When Tennessee seceded he ignored the action of his state and remained at his post in the Senate. He sympathized with southern men in almost everything except their hostility to the Union; held strict views of states' rights; would yield nothing for the sake of accommodation; and could never be right without so exasperating his opponents as to put himself practically in the wrong. Although he had been elected by the National Union party, he held many Democratic principles and was soon at variance with the Republican Congress.

577. The Constitution Fails to Provide for Times of Civil Strife. The Constitution had suffered a severe strain. It contained no distinct provisions for sufficient executive powers to manage the affairs of the nation during turbulent times of civil strife. Circumstances had frequently forced Lincoln, as commander-in-chief of the army, to exercise an arbitrary power; in short, the Department of War became the real government of the country. The President suspended the writ of habeas corpus as he pleased. Arbitrary arrests were made by the thousand. No one suspected of disloyalty was safe; men of all ranks and conditions—judges, mayors of cities, editors of newspapers, deserters, and draft resisters—lay in prison without hope of trial. All this arbitrary exercise of power, though necessary to maintain order in time of war, was not expressly provided for in the Constitution.

578. The Problems of Reconstruction and Reunion. Now that the war was over, other new and perplexing questions not provided for in the Constitution confronted the government. What was the status of the states that had attempted secession? How were they to be readmitted to the Union? What rights should the emancipated negro enjoy?

It was universally admitted that after the downfall of the Confederacy the seceded states could not resume their relations with the Union just where they had been broken off. The Supreme Court held that the government from which the

states had sought to withdraw was "an indestructible Union of indestructible states." Accordingly, these seceded states, having succeeded neither in severing their connection with the Federal government nor in destroying their own existence as states, were still states, and states in the Union. But the question was: In what relation did they now stand to the government they had sought to destroy?

579. Lincoln's Policy of Reconstruction. Even during the war President Lincoln had taken steps toward reconstruction; that is, he stated the conditions under which the seceded states could again govern themselves and be represented in Congress. He held that the Union of States is perpetual; hence, secession was virtually impossible; also, that the Union had not been broken; therefore the seceded states, as before, were entitled to representation in Congress. Acting on this policy, Lincoln issued (December, 1863) an Amnesty Proclamation by which he extended full pardon and restoration to all property rights (except those in slaves) to all persons who would take an oath to support Congress and the Emancipation Proclamation. Certain classes of persons who had taken a prominent part in secession, or who had left the service of the United States for the service of the Confederacy, were excepted from the amnesty. He also promised that any seceded state in which at least one-tenth of its voters of 1860 took the oath might set up a state government, and that, with the consent of Congress, its members should be given their former places in the National House. Acting on this plan, Louisiana, Arkansas, and Tennessee set up so-called "ten per cent" governments and duly elected representatives to Congress.

580. Johnson's Views on Reconstruction. Johnson's views on the problem of reconstruction were practically the same as those of Lincoln. He lacked, however, Lincoln's tact, and his method of reconstruction aroused the indignation of the North and drove Congress to open opposition. During the first eight months of his presidency, Congress, which was not in session,

could not interfere, and Johnson had his own way in dealing with the southern states. Availing himself of the opportunity: (a) he raised the southern blockade, again opening these ports to the world's trade;

(b) he issued a Proclamation of Amnesty similar to Lincoln's, except that it excluded a larger number (adding all those who, possessing taxable property valued at twenty thousand dollars, had voluntarily enlisted in the Confederate service);

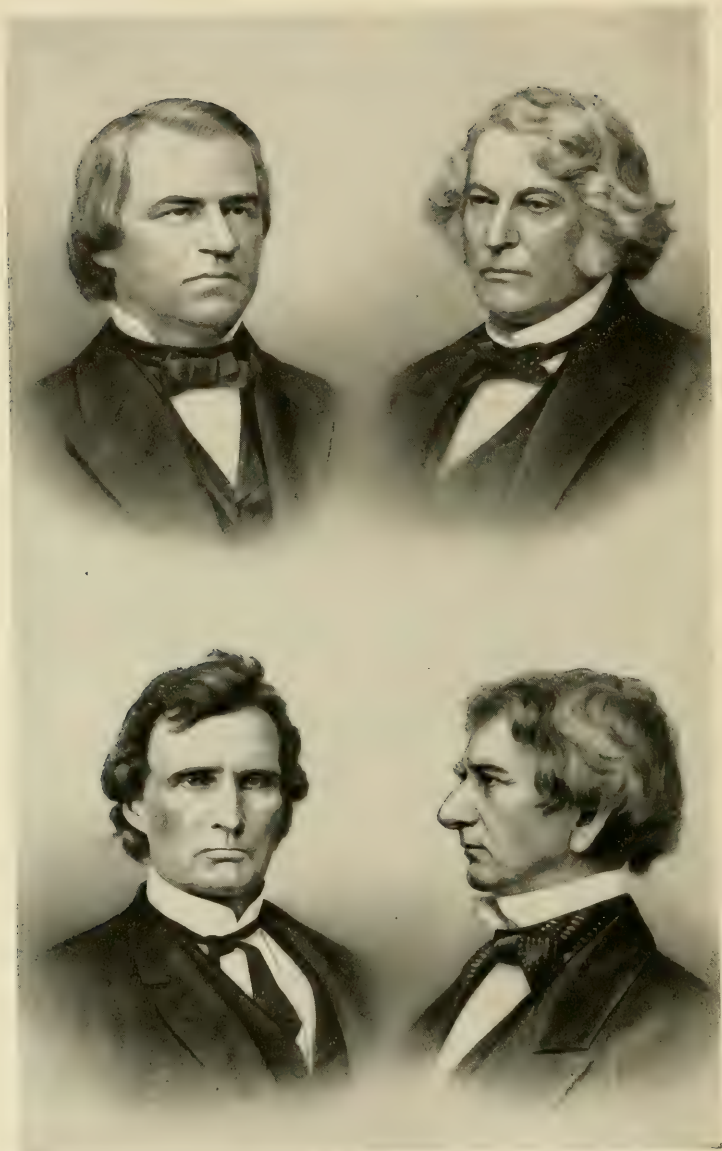
(c) he appointed a provisional governor for each of the Confederate states, who was to call a convention of delegates elected by the qualified white voters. This convention was required to adopt the following measures: (1) declare the ordinances of secession null and void; (2) repudiate the Confederate war debt and promise never to pay it.

The new state legislatures were required to abolish slavery by ratifying the Thirteenth Amendment.

The required votes having been passed by all the seceded states, Johnson claimed that the states had never been legally out of the Union, and that the relation to the Union was now complete. He therefore recognized their state governments and declared them to be entitled to representation in Congress (December, 1865).

The Emancipation Proclamation set free the slaves in a part of the country only. Hence, not only was the right to buy more slaves left untouched, but slavery still existed in some of the states that had not seceded. Consequently, Congress, amidst the most exciting scenes, passed the Thirteenth Amendment, which, borrowing words from the Ordinance of 1787, abolished slavery forever in every state of the Union. The amendment, being ratified by three-fourths of the states, became (December 18, 1865) a part of the Constitution.

581. The Reconstruction Policy of Congress. Congress, however, entertained a plan of reconstruction quite different from



ANDREW JOHNSON
THADDEUS STEVENS

CHARLES SUMNER
WILLIAM H. SEWARD

RECONSTRUCTION LEADERS

that of Lincoln or Johnson. No sooner had this body met (December, 1865) than it overthrew Johnson's work, denied southern members their seats in Congress, and appointed a joint committee of fifteen from the two Houses to consider the whole subject of reconstruction. The ruling party (Republican) adopted the view that the southern states, as a result of their secession, had deprived themselves of all civil government and had forfeited their rights of self-government. It further stated that they continued to exist only as disorganized communities, subject directly to Congress for government as well as for the conditions under which they might return to the Union. There was, moreover, a third policy held by certain congressmen of extremely radical views, such as Senator Charles Sumner and Representative Thaddeus Stevens. These maintained that the southern states, by an act of rebellion, had destroyed their existence as self-governing commonwealths and should be held as conquered provinces and governed as territorial dependencies under the sole power of Congress.

582. Congress Rejects Johnson's Plan. Congress rejected the President's plan of reconstruction for the following reasons:

- (a) it thought that Congress alone had the right to determine the conditions under which the states were to be readmitted, and that the President had exceeded his authority by acting independently of this body;
- (b) because out of Johnson's eleven reconstructed states Tennessee alone had respected the liberty of the freedmen. The legislatures of the remaining ten states enacted harsh laws, called "Black Codes," which practically again reduced the freedmen to a state of slavery;
- (c) Congress, wishing to guard against any future payment of the Confederate debt, thought that Johnson's plan did not adequately provide for this;
- (d) the North feared that the southern leaders (Democrats), together with the Democrats of the North, all of whom

were supporters of the President's policy, would rule the country as they had done before the war. This they meant to prevent by refusing suffrage to the leaders of the Confederacy.

583. The Black Codes. By the Black Codes, unemployed freedmen, termed vagrants, or tramps, were subject to arrest and fine; in case the fine could not be paid they could be hired out (preferably to their former masters) to work out the fine; all free negroes should have employment under written contract; the quitting of such service would make them liable to arrest; a penalty was fixed for many petty offenses of which the negro was commonly guilty; orphans and children whose parents did not support them might be "bound out" by a court to employers until they became of age.

During the war the mass of slaves had remained on the plantations, quietly guarding the women and children and raising the crops. After the Emancipation Proclamation this happy condition of affairs was changed. Thousands of negroes left the plantations and flocked to the Federal lines for protection. It is said that sixty thousand slaves surrounded Grant's army at Vicksburg. Some of the negroes were admitted into the Union army or were given garrison duties. But the vast majority, even faithful former slaves, became good-for-nothing tramps, who refused to work the plantations and wandered from place to place, or flocked to the large cities, where they lived by begging or stealing. What wonder, then, that the southern states found themselves compelled to establish severe laws restricting the rights of these dangerous idlers. Nevertheless, many of the measures passed by the southern legislatures seemed unnecessarily harsh, and practically introduced a new form of involuntary servitude, if not actual slavery.

584. The Freedman's Bureau Bill. To relieve the suffering inevitably occasioned by removing the source of support of the freedmen, Congress passed (1865) a Freedman's Bureau

Bill, which, the following year (1866), was renewed and extended for another two years. Though each time vetoed by the President, it was passed by a two-thirds majority over his veto. The bill provided for a bureau in the War Department which was:

- (a) to care for sick and helpless freedmen by providing them with provisions, clothing, and other necessities;
- (b) to appropriate the property of the Confederate government for the education of the negroes;
- (c) to parcel out abandoned lands to the freedmen, giving no one man more than forty acres; and
- (d) to extend military protection to the freedmen.

The purpose of the Freedman's Bill seemed humane, for, since the emancipated negroes no longer enjoyed the support of their masters, it would have been cruel to throw them empty-handed upon the world. In practice, however, the bill raised many difficulties and wrought almost as much harm as good, since it led many negroes to quit profitable work and gather in idle gangs about the bureau depots.

585. The Fourteenth Amendment. A Civil Rights Bill was passed by Congress (1866). It declared all persons born in the United States, and not subject to any foreign power, excluding Indians not taxed, to be citizens of the United States. The negro was granted all the rights of citizenship except the right to vote. He could make contracts and go to law in the courts in case civil rights were denied him. The President vetoed the bill on grounds of injustice, and for the further reason that it gave to the National government dangerous powers never before exercised. The Senate and the House, exasperated by Johnson's stubborn defense of his own policy, promptly passed the bill over his veto.

Though the constitutionality of the Civil Rights Bill was not directly challenged by the President, the Republican majority of both Houses was determined to secure the principles aimed at in the bill, and made it a part of the Constitution by fram-

ing and adopting the Fourteenth Amendment (July, 1868). This amendment provided:

- (a) that "all persons born or naturalized in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof are citizens of the United States and of the state wherein they reside";
- (b) that representation be based upon population; but if any state denied to any of its male citizens above twenty-one the right to vote, its representation should be reduced accordingly;
- (c) that all the Confederate leaders who had broken their oath to support the Constitution of the United States, or had engaged in insurrection, should be excluded from holding Federal offices unless pardoned by a two-thirds vote of Congress;
- (d) that it be forever unlawful for the United States or any state to pay any debt incurred in aid of rebellion against the government of the United States, and that the validity of the United States debt should never be questioned.

The amendment was submitted to the states (1866) for ratification and was made a condition of readmission for the southern states into the Union. All of these states considered the conditions for readmission degrading and rejected the terms, except Tennessee, which, having already adopted the Thirteenth Amendment, was now immediately restored to the Union, while the ten non-reconstructed states were placed under military government.

A great part of the Civil War debt is still unpaid. Never except for a short time during Jackson's administration has our government been free from debt.

586. Ill-feeling between the President and Congress. The ill-feeling between Congress and the President kept steadily increasing. Neither tried to please the other. To make matters still worse, Johnson, on a trip through the country, made speeches in many of the western cities, denouncing Congress

and its plan of action, calling it "a factious, domineering, tyrannical Congress," "a Congress violently breaking up the Union." His intemperate and undignified language weakened rather than strengthened his cause, and disgraced his high office.

587. Reconstruction Program of Congress. The President's undignified proceedings, together with the fact that many of the southern states rejected the Fourteenth Amendment, induced Congress to make arrangements for the carrying out of compulsory reconstruction. For this purpose the Republican committee framed a program which Congress carried out with a high hand over Johnson's vetoes. According to this program:

- (a) Congress, instead of waiting until December, was to convene on the fourth of March, in order to prevent the President from again carrying out independent measures of reconstruction;
- (b) a Tenure of Office Act was to be enacted which would limit the power of the President in the removal of federal officers;
- (c) General Grant was given command of the army, to prevent Johnson from withdrawing the soldiers from the South.

588. Reconstruction Acts. Congress, in accordance with its high-handed program, now proceeded to the execution of a most rigorous policy and passed the Reconstruction Act (1867). According to this act:

- (a) the governments of the southern states set up by Johnson were overthrown and the ten unreconstructed states were divided into five military districts, each under an officer of the army and an adequate force of troops;
- (b) the officers in their respective districts were to provide for a constitutional convention in each state. The voters for the delegates to the conventions were to be male citizens over twenty-one years of age, regardless of race, color, or previous condition. Such as could not take the so-called "ironclad" oath, that is, swear that they had

not taken up arms against the United States, were excluded from voting for delegates; this meant, granting suffrage to the negro and denying it to the majority of the southern whites;

- (c) the constitutions adopted by the conventions should provide for negro suffrage;
- (d) the constitutions drawn up by the conventions should be ratified by the qualified voters of the districts (negroes, and whites who could take the "ironclad" oath);
- (e) the state legislatures formed under these new constitutions should ratify the Fourteenth Amendment;
- (f) all these conditions having been complied with, Congress would declare the full restoration of these states to the Union and give their senators and representatives their places in the National House. Under these conditions all the seceded states (except Tennessee, already restored), were readmitted by 1870.

589. The Fifteenth Amendment. The Reconstruction Acts practically imposed negro suffrage upon the South. In order to place this suffrage beyond the power of the state legislatures, the Fifteenth Amendment, meanwhile adopted by Congress (1869), forbade any state to deny suffrage to any one on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. It was, together with the Fourteenth Amendment, again made a condition for the readmission of Virginia, Georgia, Mississippi, and Texas, which were belated in their reconstruction. Adopted by the necessary number of states, the amendment became a part of the Constitution (1870).

Some of the southern states have since passed laws limiting the right to vote to men who can read and write. These laws if literally enforced would exclude not only a large proportion of negroes but also a great number of whites. But since the laws are aimed expressly against the negroes, some of the states have added the so-called "grandfather clause," which provides that the educational qualifications shall not prevent

any man from voting if his ancestors have voted or might have lawfully voted at a date earlier than the adoption of the Fifteenth Amendment. Thus the ignorant white man is allowed to vote while the ignorant negro is barred out.

590. The Tenure of Office Act. In accordance with the custom of his predecessors since Jackson's time, Johnson removed many Republican officeholders who were not in sympathy with his administration. This occasioned the Tenure of Office Act, by which every officer appointed with the advice and consent of the Senate should continue to hold his position until the senators agreed to his removal. The Constitution, vesting the appointment of important officers in the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, is silent as to the process of removal.

591. Johnson Is Impeached. In spite of the Tenure of Office Act, Johnson suspended (1867) Edwin M. Stanton from the office of Secretary of War, and appointed General Grant to supersede him. The Senate, hereupon, impeached the President for eleven "high crimes and misdemeanors," which, summarized, were his violation of the Tenure of Office Act in the removal of Secretary Stanton; his public speeches against Congress, which decreased the confidence of the people in the legislative body of the nation; and his opposition to the Reconstruction Act.

Thus, for the first and only time in our history, was the President called to be tried by the Senate. The trial continued for two months, with the members of the Senate acting as judges and Chief Justice Chase presiding. It was conducted with great ability on both sides. At the test vote thirty-five senators voted guilty and nineteen not guilty. Consequently, there was one vote lacking for a two-thirds majority in the Senate, which was necessary for conviction. Stanton thereupon resigned, and the appointment of General Schofield, who had been nominated as Secretary of War during the impeachment proceedings, was confirmed. Thus ended the great trial,

which had attracted the attention of the civilized world. It was the most dramatic incident in the civil history of the United States. The country was gratified that the great trial did not occasion any popular uprising or serious disturbance in business affairs.

Stanton had held the office of Secretary of War since his appointment by Lincoln (1862), and was one of the most fearless and able, though not unbiased, officers that had ever filled that position. But in his opposition to Johnson he was clearly in the wrong.

The Tenure of Office Act placed the President in an unendurable position by denying him the right to choose his own cabinet officers. The Act was unwise and prompted by passion. It was, fortunately, soon modified and finally repealed in 1887.

592. The French in Mexico. While the United States was still engrossed in civil strife, France, Great Britain, and Spain agreed to force Mexico to pay the debts due to these countries. Great Britain and Spain, however, soon withdrew their demands. Napoleon III, Emperor of France, thinking that the United States could not interfere because of her civil war, determined to establish a French empire upon the ruins of the Mexican republic. In 1862 he sent a French invading army to Mexico, which by 1864 had overrun the republic and succeeded in setting up an empire with Maximilian, archduke of Austria (a brother of the Emperor of Austria), as ruling monarch. Though the United States considered this an open violation of the Monroe Doctrine, she could only protest against it, as her hands were bound by the civil war. Immediately after the war, however (1865), Secretary Seward demanded that the French withdraw from Mexico. At the same time Sheridan was sent to Texas with fifty thousand veterans. The French ruler now withdrew his army. Maximilian, however, remained, but soon after was taken prisoner, tried by court martial, and shot by Mexican authorities, who reestablished the republic.





West from Greenwich.

90

80

MANZ-Chicago.

593. The Submarine Telegraph. Cyrus W. Field (1866), after several unsuccessful attempts, finally laid the first Atlantic cable, which established telegraphic communication between the Old and the New World. His first attempted Atlantic cable (1858) extended from Heart's Content, Newfoundland, to Valencia Bay, Ireland. It carried, however, only about three hundred messages and ceased to work after three weeks of service. His second attempt (1865) also failed, the cable parting in mid-ocean. With the help of the steamship *Great Eastern* he eventually (1866) laid a successful cable.

594. A New State—The Purchase of Alaska. During Johnson's administration, Nebraska was admitted (1867), over the President's veto, as the thirty-seventh state, just in time to take part in the presidential election of 1868.

Through the diplomacy of Secretary Seward, the United States (1867) concluded a treaty with the Russian government by which it secured possession of the vast territory of Alaska (over five hundred and ninety thousand square miles) for \$7,200,000. By this purchase another European power was removed from the American continent. The carrying out of the Monroe Doctrine was thus rendered easier. From the time of its discovery and exploration by Russians under Vitus Bering (1728-1741) until it was ceded to the United States, Alaska had been known as "Russian-America." Secretary



ALASKAN TRADING POST

Seward was loudly denounced for paying so great a sum of money for what was believed to be only a large field of icebergs. Since then, however, Alaska has come to be known as wonderfully rich in minerals, forests, fisheries, and furs.

595. The Burlingame Treaty. By the influence of Anson Burlingame, our minister to China, the first embassy ever sent from that empire to any foreign power arrived in the United States. The result was a treaty between China and the American Republic which promised security of life, liberty, and property to the people of either nation while in the territory of the other.

596. Reconstruction Is the Issue of the Campaign of 1868. Although all the Confederate states except three—Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas—had been reconstructed, and their representatives had taken their places in Congress, many Democrats denounced the reconstruction work of Congress as unconstitutional and declared that if their party should win in the election and get control of Congress they would overthrow it as null and void. Consequently, reconstruction was again the chief issue in the presidential election of 1868.

The Republican convention at Chicago (May) nominated General Grant for President. Its platform demanded the payment of the public debt in sound money (coin), advocated an amendment to the Constitution establishing manhood suffrage throughout the land, promised liberal pensions to soldiers, and denounced President Johnson in violent language.

The Democratic convention at New York (July) nominated Horatio Seymour of New York for President. Its platform condemned in strong terms the reconstruction policy of the Republicans, favored the payment of war bonds, or debts, in greenbacks, demanded the immediate restoration of all the states to their rights in the Union under the Constitution, and lauded President Johnson for his course during the controversy.

As the greenbacks, or paper notes, were below par, the Democrats thought the payment of the war bonds in greenbacks

instead of gold would increase the stock of money in the country, since the government would thus be obliged to issue a very large amount of paper money. Thus the period of high prices might be prolonged. The party, furthermore, reasoned that the government had borrowed money from the rich people, who consequently held the government bonds. Now, these rich people could sell their bonds for gold, and with this coin purchase greenbacks amounting apparently to double the value of their gold; hence the demand of the Democratic party that all bonds be made payable, principal and interest, in greenbacks. The Republicans claimed that the payment of the war debt in greenbacks would repudiate a part of the debt, since the bondholders in purchasing bonds had expected payment in gold, and legal tenders were not yet at par.

597. The Second Plenary Council. The Second Plenary Council of the Church in the United States convened (1866) at Baltimore and was presided over by Archbishop Spalding as Delegate Apostolic. Seven archbishops, thirty-nine bishops, two mitred abbots, and one hundred and twenty theologians took part in its proceedings. It enacted measures providing for the greater uniformity of discipline and the general well-ordering of the affairs of the Church in America. The session continued for two weeks and closed with a scene of solemn grandeur, at which President Andrew Johnson was present.

CHAPTER XXXIII

ULYSSES S. GRANT'S ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1869-1877

598. Grant and Colfax Are Elected. At the election of 1868, "Unconditional Surrender" Grant of Civil War fame, the Republican candidate, was elected President by the great majority of one hundred and thirty-four electoral votes over Horatio Seymour, the Democratic nominee. Schuyler Colfax was chosen Vice-president.

Ulysses Simpson [originally Hiram Ulysses] Grant (1822-1885) was a native of Mount Pleasant, Ohio. He spent four years at West Point and later served in the Mexican and Civil Wars. Although Grant was absolutely honest in the discharge of his duties, his administration as President was not wholly successful, owing largely to the fact that some of his advisers proved most unworthy.

599. Three Classes of People Control the South. As a consequence of the reconstruction policy of Congress, there was a complete revolution in the political conditions in the South. The party formerly in control was now devoid of power, and the government was in the hands of three classes of people:

- (a) negroes, who composed the majority of voters and held the places in the legislatures and in Congress once occupied by the able statesmen of the South;
- (b) southern white leaders, termed "scalawags," who exerted an influence for evil over ignorant and excitable negroes;
- (c) northern politicians, contemptuously termed "carpet-baggers," because it was said they carried their possessions in carpet-bags. Though many of these northerners were men of integrity, interested in the negro

and in the welfare of the South, the greater number were unscrupulous adventurers intent on gain. They had hastened south to buy at low figures estates of insolvent or dead planters, or to secure public offices. It was an easy matter for them to persuade the negro that the Republicans had set them free, that the southern white men, who were Democrats, wished to put them back into slavery, and that, therefore, their only hope was to vote for Republicans.

600. Carpet-bag and Negro Rule. Under this new rule of carpet-baggers, scalawags, and negroes, known in history as the period of carpet-bag government (1868-1876):

- (a) money was borrowed on state bonds and used corruptly;
 - (b) enormous debts were piled up which were expected to be paid by the southern whites;
 - (c) heavy taxes were levied, which fell chiefly on the disfranchised classes, since negroes, scalawags, and carpet-baggers possessed scarcely any taxable property;
 - (d) taxes, appropriations, and loans all flowed into the hands of the fraudulent legislatures, contractors, and politicians;
 - (e) other unbearable indignities were heaped upon the whites.
- Not infrequently ignorant and vicious negroes, filling local and state offices, used their power to obtain vengeance upon their former masters and political enemies. In brief, the degradation and suffering of the South was even greater than in the days of war. How changed were the scenes in the legislative halls where once the voices of Hayne, Calhoun, and other brilliant southern statesmen resounded! Ignorant negroes sat in the Speaker's chair; negro clerks read the resolutions to the legislatures; important committees were composed of a negro chairman and a majority of negro members.

The granting of suffrage to the negro before he was educated for the purpose was a great mistake, and was rendered still

more evil by the reconstruction measures which disfranchised the able white people of the South. As a consequence, the negro, having had a taste of his new order of life, refused to go back to common occupations; the states, plunged heavily in debt by the carpet-bag and negro rule, could not encourage industry and education, the sole remedies for the freedmen's difficulties; and, worst of all, race hatred was aroused. Stung by the overbearing conduct of the negroes and carpet-baggers, the southern whites began a determined effort to regain control of their state governments and to prevent the negroes from ruling. Peaceable means were first resorted to, but these proved of no avail, especially where the negroes were in the majority. Before long secret societies were formed, which, through mysterious warnings, appearances of ghostly visitors, and midnight raids by white-robed horsemen, endeavored to frighten the negroes from voting or holding office. The negroes, naturally superstitious, saw in these warnings and ghostly visitors the spirits of the dead Confederates returning to avenge their wrongs. Negroes were frequently whipped. Carpet-baggers, agents of the Freedmen's Bureau, and white school-teachers were driven away and even murdered. Finally, as these organizations, controlled at first by the better class of southern people, fell into the hands of the rougher and more lawless element, a reign of terror began.

601. The Ku Klux Klan—Other Societies. The most famous of these secret organizations was the Ku Klux Klan. This was at first a sort of police, originated by the young men of Tennessee (1866) as a means of keeping the negroes under control by working upon their superstitions. But it spread throughout the South and before long was committing acts of extreme violence and outrage.

At about the same time, a society composed of negroes, northerners, and southern whites, known as the Loyal League, was formed. Its purpose was to oppose the Ku Klux Klan and to protect the newly enfranchised negroes in their rights

as men and citizens. The methods of the two opposing societies were quite similar. Consequently, when they came into collision the results were often terrible.

602. The Force Bills or Ku Klux Klan Act. To retaliate upon the Ku Klux Klan for its defiance of the reconstruction measures, Congress enacted the "Force Bills" (1870-1872). By these, severe penalties were fixed for depriving any person of civil rights under the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments; the polls and election of members to Congress were placed under the control of United States officers and courts; and the President was authorized to suspend the writ of habeas corpus in any region where he thought it necessary, and to make use of the United States troops to maintain order.

603. The Southern Whites Defeat the Republicans at the Polls. In the next few years troops were frequently called upon to put down riots, and by 1872 the evils of the Ku Klux Klan had been generally suppressed. Meanwhile, however, the southern whites (Democrats) managed to defeat the Republicans at the polls, and by 1876 had obtained control of all their state governments. This they brought about by a union of all the whites in some of the states; by causing the negroes to remain away from the polls, either by means of intimidation and violence, or by various sharp methods in voting, including the "stuffing" of ballot boxes, thus carrying the elections by fraud.

604. Grant Is Re-elected. In the election of 1872 Grant defeated Horace Greeley, the Liberal Republican candidate, by an overwhelming majority. Henry Wilson of Massachusetts was chosen Vice-president. The condition of affairs in the South had again formed the campaign issue. Many of the Republicans, dissatisfied with Grant's administration, and favoring a more liberal policy toward the reconstructed states, formed the Liberal Republican party. This party wanted the reconstruction measures to stand, but demanded a reform in the Civil Service, a change in the tariff, and pardon and

amnesty for the South. The Democrats accepted both the platform and the candidate of the Liberal Republicans, and the campaign cry became, "Anything to beat Grant."

605. The Alabama Claims—The Washington Treaty. Meanwhile, war had broken out between Germany and France. England, fearing she might be drawn into the conflict, wished to assure herself of the friendship of the United States. Congress seized the opportunity to take up anew what was known as the Alabama Claims against Great Britain. These claims arose from the losses to American shipping caused by the *Alabama* and other Confederate privateers fitted out in British ports during the Civil War. England, though at first unwilling (1862) even to consider these claims, now asked for a commission to settle the differences. As a result a treaty concluded at Washington (1871) provided for a high commission of five members, named by the governments of the United States, England, Italy, Switzerland, and Brazil. It was agreed by this treaty:

- (a) that the Alabama Claims should be given to this commission which should meet at Geneva, Switzerland;
- (b) that the fishery claims on the northeastern Canadian coasts be referred to another commission;
- (c) that the question of our northwest boundary, not clearly defined by the treaty of 1846, be submitted to the Emperor of Germany.

The Geneva Arbitration Commission met, as designated (1872), and decided on the "Geneva Award," that is, that Great Britain pay the United States for damage done our commerce during the Civil War the sum of fifteen million five hundred thousand dollars in gold.

Subsequently, an arbitration committee met at Halifax, Nova Scotia, and decided that the United States pay five million five hundred thousand dollars for the use of the Canadian shores for drying and curing fish, for a period of twelve years.

In the question of our northwest boundary the German

Emperor decided in favor of the United States, and assigned to the United States the important archipelago of islands lying between the continent and the island of Vancouver.

The Washington Treaty was a turning point in the diplomatic history of the world, inasmuch as it marked the beginning of the practice of settling differences between nations by arbitration rather than by war.



JOINING THE TWO PACIFIC RAILROADS

606. The First Transcontinental Railroad. The Civil War had shown the necessity of some better means of communication between the East and the West than the Oregon and Santa Fe trails. Two companies were soon formed for the purpose of constructing a transcontinental railroad—the Union Pacific company, which worked from Omaha westward, and the Central Pacific, which worked from San Francisco eastward. The government gave to the companies financial

assistance and vast tracts of land along the route. The workmen from both directions finally met at Ogden, Utah (1869), where the last spike, a golden one, was driven with great ceremony, and the Union Pacific Railroad, the first commercial link between the Atlantic and Pacific, was completed.

The construction of this railroad over a line of eighteen hundred miles was a gigantic undertaking. Across valleys, over, around, and through mountains, the toilsome work proceeded slowly for a period of six years. Columbus's dream, a route to the rich products of the East, was at last realized—the United States was opened not only to fresh sources of industry and mines of wealth on the Pacific coast, but also to the silks, teas, and spices of Asia.

607. The Beginning of the Civil Service Reform. In 1871 the first step toward remedying the abuses of the Spoils System was taken. Congress passed a bill for the reform of the Civil Service, or the manner of appointing men to public offices. According to this measure, officers were to be appointed through competitive examinations rather than on the recommendation of political leaders. For three years a system of competitive examinations was followed, but as Congress refused to vote money for the purpose, the plan was for a time abandoned.

608. Political Scandals. During both of Grant's terms many political scandals arose. William M. Tweed and three other unscrupulous men constituted the famous "Tweed Ring" in New York City. For six years, this ring, through bribery and intimidation, controlled the government of the city. During these years of fraudulent rule the debt of the city increased from twenty million to one hundred and one million dollars, while Tweed and his partners accumulated fortunes. The ring was finally overthrown (1871), chiefly through the efforts of Samuel J. Tilden, a prominent Democrat. Tweed was sentenced to twelve years' imprisonment and died in prison. The other three members of the ring fled from the country.

The "Credit Mobilier" Company was organized in Pennsylvania for the purpose of constructing the Pacific Railroad. It gave some of its stock to members of Congress in order to bribe them to vote for certain bills which the company wanted passed. The transaction gave rise to one of the greatest political scandals in our history. Grant and others high in authority were accused of being involved, and the country believed that a corrupt congressional "ring" had been partially unearthed. Upon investigation (1872) Representatives Ames and Brooks were found guilty and censured by Congress.

The unfavorable impression made by the Credit Mobilier affair was heightened by an act passed by Congress (1873), only one day before the expiration of its term. This act, known as "The Salary Grab," increased the salaries of the President, congressmen, and judges of the Supreme Court. In the case of congressmen the increase was even to include the term which was just about to expire.

Public opinion condemned "The Salary Grab" and the law was repealed, except the provisions affecting the salaries of the President and judges.

The "Whiskey Ring," a combination of revenue officers and distillers, centered at St. Louis, defrauded the government of the internal revenue tax on distilled liquors. Distillers were often forced to enter the ring or meet with ruin in their business. The ring gained a widespread sway and had agents in Chicago, Milwaukee, Peoria, Cincinnati, New Orleans, and Washington. President Grant's private secretary and more than fifty other government officers were implicated in the corrupt affair. Upon secret investigation the fraud was discovered (1875). Over two hundred persons were indicted. Within ten months the government had been defrauded of one million six hundred and fifty thousand dollars.

Government agents mismanaged Indian affairs in the West, and, what is worse, they were aided in their corrupt proceedings by officials at Washington. Secretary of War Belknap

accepted bribes from Indian agents, but escaped impeachment by resigning before the resolution passed the House.

About this time (1871) San Domingo, which comprised a large part of Haiti, applied for admission into the United States. The annexation, after being warmly debated in Congress, was rejected. It was charged that the scheme of the accession of San Domingo was promoted by government agents who, having land in that island, schemed to increase its value.

609. Financial Panic of 1873. Great panics occurred after the war of 1812, also in 1837, and again in 1857. Very similar was the financial crash of 1873. It was preceded by a period of general prosperity. People wanted to get rich easily and quickly. They undertook great business enterprises on borrowed capital. Railroad mileage grew faster than the population. Fortunes were made by some and lost by others in buying tracts of land in unsettled regions and increasing the value of the land by extending railroads through them. Meanwhile, the supply of money in the country decreased; prices fell suddenly; and with the failure of the rich banking house of Jay Cooke & Co., of New York City, a terrible financial panic began which swept over the entire country, leaving thousands of business enterprises in ruins and millions of poor either without support or with greatly reduced wages. Only after five or six years did the country recover from the effects of this panic.

The causes occasioning the crisis of 1873 may be outlined as follows:

- (a) during the war money was plentiful, owing to the issue of bank notes and greenbacks; and prices, which always depend partly on the supply of money in the country, were high;
- (b) after the war the stock of money was decreased, for,
 - (1) the government withdrew one hundred million dollars of greenbacks from circulation by paying that much of its national debt;

- (2) over sixty million dollars in gold and silver were sent to European countries, because this nation imported more goods from these countries than it exported to them;
- (3) the fires in Chicago and Boston destroyed about three hundred million dollars' worth of property;
- (c) under the existing conditions both paper money and industrial securities (bonds, mortgages, etc.) represented fictitious rather than real values;
- (d) prices fell suddenly, false valuations were discovered, and many people, accustomed to spend money freely, had gone heavily into debt and now found it impossible to pay these debts.

610. The Inflation Bill. Hoping to relieve the distress resulting from the panic by getting more money into circulation, Congress passed (1874) the "Inflation Bill," which increased the amount of legal tender notes. President Grant, however, vetoed the bill on the ground that prosperity could not permanently result from artificial inflation or increase of the money supply.

611. The Resumption of Specie Payment. The large issue of paper money had driven gold and silver out of circulation. In 1875, Congress passed a bill that, on January 1, 1879, the government resume "Specie Payment," that is, make the paper dollar equal to a dollar in gold. A reserve of considerably more than one hundred million dollars was in the treasury for the redemption of paper money.

612. The "Crime of 1873"—Political Reaction. In 1873, Congress dropped the silver dollar from our coinage and ordered that nothing be coined for home use but gold, small silver pieces, and "coppers." This left the gold coin the only legal standard of value. The discovery of rich silver mines in Nevada and elsewhere had so reduced the value of the metal that many European nations stopped coining it. For these reasons Congress also dropped "the dollar of our fathers," as

it was called. Many people, however, considered the coinage act of 1873 a mistake and denounced it as the "Crime of 1873." They thought it was but the work of wealthy men in possession of government bonds for which they wanted pay in nothing cheaper than gold. The new coinage act ordered the coinage of some pieces of silver called "trade dollars," not for use at home, but in our trade with China, in competition with Spanish and Mexican dollars.

These various currency enactments seemed to change the standard by which values and prices were measured, and gave rise to the Greenback party, which demanded that the greenbacks be reissued. The Patrons of Husbandry, commonly called Grangers, a party formed by farmers throughout the country, demanded that the government put more money into circulation and prevent railroads from collecting extravagant freightage. The Democrats blamed the Republicans not only for the panic of 1873 but also for the numerous scandals occasioned by official corruption. As a result of this discontent and the hard times, the Democrats overwhelmingly carried the congressional elections in 1874 and hoped to do the same in the presidential election in 1876.

613. The Tilden-Hayes Campaign. In the campaign of 1876 the Republican platform demanded the payment of the national debt in coin, a reform of the Civil Service, a tariff protecting American labor, an investigation of Chinese immigration, and that no further land grants be given to corporations. They nominated a "dark horse," Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio, for the presidency.

The Democrats charged the Republicans with corruption. Their platform demanded reform in the manner of appointing government officers, favored a protective tariff, and opposed granting government lands to corporations composed of private individuals. Their candidate for the presidency was Samuel J. Tilden, of New York, the prosecutor of the famous "Tweed Ring."

The "Greenback," or Independent National party, in its platform demanded a repeal of the Specie Resumption Act and an increase of the currency by a larger issue of greenbacks. It named Peter Cooper, of New York, as its candidate.

The Prohibition party demanded the destruction of the liquor traffic by Congress, and nominated General Greene Clay Smith, of Kentucky, for the presidency.

614. The Weather Bureau. In 1870 Congress made an appropriation for the establishment of a Weather Bureau at Washington, to be connected by telegraphic communication with stations of observation all over the country. By means of this bureau, forecasts of storms, dangerous winds, rains, cold waves, and heavy frosts are made with considerable accuracy. This bureau has saved billions of dollars to farmers and to shipping interests, and has prevented the loss of thousands of lives by displaying its warning signals along the coast. The Weather Bureau was originally a branch of the War Department, but since 1891 it has been under the control of the Department of Agriculture.

615. Indian Affairs. The Indian affairs of the country at this period were involved in difficulties. President Grant (1870) divided the Indians among the various religious denominations of the country, but did not give a single superintendency to Catholics. Only comparatively few agencies were confided to the Catholic Church, the first and ever-faithful protector of the Indian. Thus the Catholic Indians of the United States, many of whose forefathers had been converted by Catholic missionaries long before Protestants set foot on our soil, were handed over to Protestant denominations. Naturally, Grant's action only increased the difficulties.

The Modoc Indians refused to be removed from their hunting grounds in California to their reservation in Oregon, and as a result war ensued (1872). In the midst of a peace conference held between the Indians and the white agents, the Indians treacherously slew General Canby and Dr. Thomas. The

Modocs were then besieged and forced to surrender. Their chief, Captain Jack, and other prominent leaders were executed.

The Sioux Indians had been assigned a reservation in the Black Hill country, which comprised parts of Dakota and Wyoming. When a portion of this country was invaded by gold seekers, Congress canceled the Indian title to that part of it. This act angered the Indians, who, under their famous chief, Sitting Bull, became hostile. United States troops were sent to subdue them. In June, 1876, a force of nearly three hundred men under General George A. Custer was massacred at Little Big Horn River by nine thousand Sioux. Sitting Bull thereupon retreated into English territory, but kept menacing the western country till the Canadian authorities commanded him to abandon all hostile plans or leave their country. He finally sued for peace and returned to the United States.

616. Destructive Fires. A great fire broke out in Chicago in October (1871). It raged for two days and laid waste many square miles, including the business portion of the city. Two hundred million dollars' worth of property was destroyed, one hundred thousand persons were rendered homeless, and two hundred and fifty lives were lost. Contributions from nearly all parts of the world, amounting to more than half a million dollars, were sent for the relief of the homeless and suffering people.

The following year the business section of Boston was also destroyed by fire and eighty million dollars' worth of property was swept away.

At about the time of the Chicago disaster, fearful forest fires, sweeping through the timber districts of Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Michigan, consumed entire villages and caused great loss of life and property.

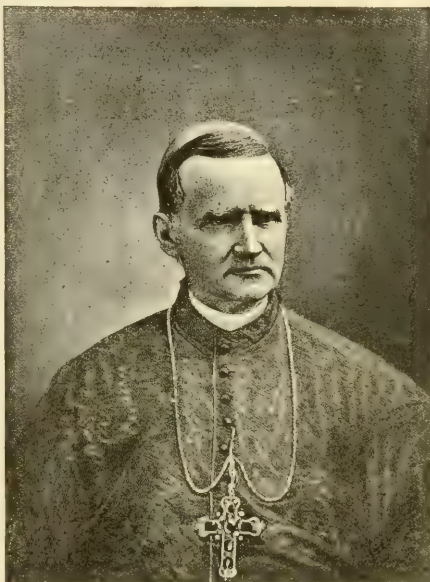
617. The Centennial Exhibition—A New State. In 1876, the hundredth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence was celebrated by a centennial exhibition at Philadelphia, in

which all the civilized nations of the world took part. The Centennial Exhibition revealed to the world the richness and variety of our natural productions and the superiority of the United States over all other countries in useful inventions. The most remarkable novelties exhibited were the telephone, invented by Graham Bell of Massachusetts, and the application of the electric light.

Colorado, the "Centennial state," entered the Union as the thirty-eighth state, in 1876.

618. The First American Cardinal. During Grant's administration occurred one of the most memorable events in the history of the Church of the United States—Pius IX, of blessed memory, gave the American Catholics their first Cardinal in the person of the Venerable John McCloskey, the successor of Archbishop Hughes in the Archiepiscopal See of New York. His solemn investiture took place in the unfinished St. Patrick's Cathedral (April 27, 1875), which edifice His Eminence later solemnly dedicated to the service of God (May, 1877).

The last public act of Cardinal McCloskey is one for which the American Church will ever feel deeply grateful. The Italian government's act of spoliation of ecclesiastical property threatened also (1884) to expropriate the American College at Rome. The Cardinal at once laid the matter before President



CARDINAL MCCLOSKEY

Arthur, appealing for the protection of the institution as the property of American citizens. As a result, the Secretary of State, through the American minister, brought the case to the notice of the Italian government and the college was saved.

619. Death of Great Men. During Grant's administration the following public men died: Edwin Stanton, Secretary of War under Lincoln (1869); General Robert E. Lee, Confederate leader (1870); General George H. Thomas, the "Rock of Chickamauga" (1870); William H. Seward, Secretary of State under Lincoln (1872); Samuel F. B. Morse, inventor of the electric telegraph (1872); Horace Greeley, the great journalist (1872); General Meade, of Gettysburg fame (1872); and Andrew Johnson, successor to Lincoln in the presidency.

CHAPTER XXXIV

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES'S ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1877-1881

620. Hayes and Wheeler Are Elected. Owing to the extraordinary nature of the election of 1876, a joint high commission was appointed, for the first time in the history of the country, to determine the result of the election.

Twice in our history (1800, 1824) the electoral college failed to choose a President, but only once has there been a presidential election disputed in such a manner as the centennial election of 1876. A Democratic majority seemed to sweep the country. But in three of the southern states—Louisiana, South Carolina, and Florida—where carpet-bag rule was still in existence, there were rival state governments and governors. The officers who canvassed the election returns were Republicans, and rejected the votes of certain districts on grounds of fraud and intimidation, and declared the Hayes electors chosen. Two sets of votes were sent from these states to the president of the Senate to be counted. Oregon, too, owing to the question as to the qualification of a Republican elector, sent in double returns. The Senate, being Republican, accepted the Republican returns, while the House, being Democratic, considered the Democratic returns as the true ones. The Democrats could not hope to revoke the rule in operation since 1865, that the electoral vote of any state should not be counted if either house objected, even though the House of Representatives—the larger body—was Democratic. As it was, Tilden had one hundred and eighty-four undisputed votes, and the counting of one vote from the states in dispute would make him President. On the other hand, all the votes from the

disputed states would be required to give Hayes a majority. Since no method was provided by the Constitution to settle which of the disputed votes should be counted, Congress finally decided that each case should be referred to a joint high commission composed of five senators (three Republicans and two Democrats), five representatives (three Democrats and two Republicans), and five justices of the Supreme Court (two of each party, the fifth to be chosen by these four). The fifth justice selected was a Republican. This tribunal of eight Republicans and seven Democrats at length decided Hayes elected, only two days before the time set for his inauguration (March 4). The Democrats were naturally disappointed and dissatisfied, and claimed that the electoral commission had been partisan in its decision. The excitement and bitterness aroused by the contest, however, subsided, and Hayes was peacefully inaugurated.

Rutherford B. Hayes (1822-1893) was a native of Ohio and a graduate of Kenyon College of his own state and Harvard Law School of Massachusetts. During the war he entered the Union army and rose to the rank of brigadier-general. He resigned this rank, however, upon being chosen representative of his district in Congress. He served two terms as congressman, after which he was thrice chosen governor of his state. Though not brilliant as a popular party leader, he was noted for his great moral courage, good judgment, and high integrity. Owing to the dispute over his election, he entered upon his office under very unfavorable conditions, but he soon proved himself admirably qualified to lead the nation during the time of peace and conciliation upon which it was just entering.

621. A New Era. With the administration of President Hayes the nation emerged from the dark shadows of the Civil War to enter upon an era of peace, unity, and progress. The old questions of states' rights and slavery, which had occupied the attention of the nation for more than half a century, were now replaced by the problems of currency regulation, reform

of the monetary system, revisions of the tariff, regulation of railroads, corporations, and trusts, reform of the ballot, expansion of territory, and world politics.

622. The Solid South. President Hayes, desirous of reëstablishing the peace and friendship formerly existing between the North and South, wisely did what the opposing Democratic party most favored, and what many of his own party opposed—he withdrew the Federal troops from the South. The carpet-bag governments, being unable to stand without military support, were overthrown by the southern Democrats, who at once obtained control of these states. From this time forward the white vote of the South assumed control and the negro ceased to govern. This event marked the beginning of a better feeling between the two sections, which was still further increased by the appointment of a Democrat, David M. Key, as Postmaster-General by President Hayes. The epoch of reconstruction had finally come to a close (1877).

623. New Industrial Conditions. During the war, when people had been forced to do business on a large scale—to make rifles and cannon; to furnish food and to manufacture clothing; and to construct gunboats and warships—they learned from experience that there was more gain in united action than in competition. After the war this fact led to the formation of corporations, that is, the combining of the capital and interests of several men for doing business. Many of these corporations, proceeding still further, united so as to make one great company, known as a “trust.” For example, instead of there being many separate railroad companies in the United States, a few soon gained control of the great lines. Instead of a great many independent oil companies, the Standard Oil Company eventually managed to control nearly all the coal oil in the country. The same may be said of other classes of industries—cotton, sugar, tobacco, steel, etc. Naturally, under such conditions the contrast between the rich and poor became more apparent. The trusts crowded out the smaller corpora-

tions and the weaker stockholders. Large numbers of women and children were employed in factories, while a reduction of wages and an increase in the duties and hours of labor for employees followed. The result of the new industrial conditions was, naturally, a general feeling of discontent among the laboring classes.

624. Labor Unions. In order to check the alarming development and aggressiveness of capitalists and corporations, which threatened to oppress and degrade the toiling masses more and more, labor unions, which had existed in our country even before the Constitution, now became more numerous and widespread. Notable among these unions was the Knights of Labor, an organization which included in its membership workers of all industries. It gained hundreds of thousands of members and exerted a great influence all over the country. The purposes of the unions may be summarized as follows:

- (a) the distribution of sick and death benefits;
- (b) the fostering of a spirit of coöperation among workingmen;
- (c) the spread of educational influence, through meetings, papers, and discussions;
- (d) common action looking toward the increase of wages and the decrease of working hours;
- (e) a demand for legislation insuring the safety and comfort of laborers and the protection of women and children.

625. Strikes—Black Lists—Boycotts. The two primary objects of most labor unions were the increase of wages and the decrease of hours of labor. In case a company refused to grant these, or otherwise failed to satisfy the demands of the union, the workingmen united in a "strike," that is, stopped working and kept other men from working in their places, till some agreement had been made. The employers, in turn, united against the workingmen by making out "black lists" containing the names of the leaders of the union men, to whom, from that time forward, they agreed to refuse employment. The workingmen sometimes decided to "boycott" a firm, that is,

they refused to trade with it, or even handle its goods for transportation. In the early years of this period the strikers were seldom successful.

The first great strike occurred in 1877, when several of the leading railroads had reduced the wages of their employees. For two weeks trains did not run, and mobs held possession of railroad stations and shops. At Pittsburg, the center of the storm, property was destroyed by the rioters and several persons were killed. The national troops, however, restored order. This railroad strike was contagious and soon spread to mining, manufacturing, and other industries. In San Francisco the riots (1877) consisted not so much in railroad strikes as attacks on employers of Chinese laborers.

The Chinese had come to California in large numbers after the Burlingame Treaty. They clung to their customs and superstitions, worked for low wages, returned home with their earnings, and made no pretense whatsoever of becoming citizens. Hence they were undesirable competitors of white laborers. Congress attempted to enact an anti-Chinese law for the protection of American labor; the bill, however, was vetoed by President Hayes.

626. The Yellow Fever Epidemic. During the summer of 1878 the South was visited by a dreadful malady, the yellow fever. This epidemic raged with terrible fatality, especially in New Orleans and Memphis, and over fourteen thousand persons fell victims. Strict quarantine and a system of disinfection were established in nearly every city of the country. Aid was sent to the afflicted cities from all parts of the Union.

627. Eads and the Mississippi Jetties. During Hayes's administration an achievement of vast importance to the South was accomplished (1875-1879) by Captain B. Eads of St. Louis, the builder of the ironclads used during the war, and of the great steel arch bridge spanning the river at St. Louis. The large quantities of mud and sand carried seaward by the

Mississippi-Missouri gradually filled up the mouths of the stream and prevented the passage of heavy steamers. Repeated attempts had been made and millions of dollars expended by both the United States and Louisiana governments for the removal of the bars and the deepening of the channel. Captain Eads, after great opposition, was finally allowed by Congress to try the "jetty system" used in the low countries of Europe. By means of thousands of bundles of faggots he narrowed the channel so as to increase the force of the current to such a degree as to sweep out its own channel, thus making it possible for large steamers to pass up to New Orleans or out to sea without difficulty. The success of this



EADS BRIDGE

gigantic undertaking helped to make New Orleans by far the largest and most important commercial city of the South.

628. The Bland-Allison Bill. Owing to the discovery of new and rich silver mines in some of the

western states and to popular opposition to the discontinuance of the silver dollar coinage, Congress now decided to remonetize silver by providing that a certain amount should be purchased and coined each month. Accordingly, an act known as the Bland-Allison Bill (from the men who presented this measure) was passed. It provided:

- (a) for the purchase and coinage into dollars of not less than two million nor more than four million dollars' worth of silver each month. The coinage of this silver was to be at the rate of sixteen to one, that is, sixteen pounds of silver were to be coined into the same number of dollars as one pound of gold;

- (b) that silver be a legal tender in payment of debts at face value;
- (c) that Congress provide for depositing the silver thus coined in the treasury, and issue certificates as currency in its place, owing to the fact that so much silver in circulation would prove inconvenient. The Bland-Allison Bill, passed over the President's veto, stimulated the production of silver and greatly encouraged the mining industries in Colorado, Nevada, and other states of the West.

629. The Resumption of Specie Payment. According to the act (1875) providing for the resumption of specie payment, the national treasury was fully prepared at the appointed time (January, 1879) to exchange the people's greenbacks at par value for gold. The people, however, even those who had been hoarding legal tender notes for that express purpose, now showed no desire to obtain gold when it was worth no more than silver or greenbacks, because paper money was so much more convenient to handle. Since 1879 our paper money has been equal to gold or silver, and the government has ever since held to the policy of maintaining the three kinds of money on an equality.

630. The Presidential Campaign of 1880. President Hayes had taken a firm stand against political corruption. Believing that "He serves his party best who serves his country best," he had made fitness a test in his appointment of public officers, and had surrounded himself with a Cabinet of good advisers; in brief, he had given the country a capable, peaceful administration. He did not, however, enjoy popularity with the political leaders. Consequently, when the time of election drew near he was not a candidate for re-election. His withdrawal of the Federal troops, hitherto maintained in the South to secure fair elections, removed the last obstacle in the way of negro disfranchisement.

In the election of 1880 there were four parties in the field.

The Republicans nominated James A. Garfield of Ohio on a platform favoring a protective tariff, demanding a complete reform in the Civil Service, opposing further grants of public land to railroads and other corporations, and demanding the suppression of polygamy in Utah.

The Democrats named Winfield S. Hancock of Pennsylvania as presidential candidate on a platform demanding a tariff for revenue (not protective) and the distribution of public lands to actual settlers (not to corporations).

The Greenback Labor party nominated James B. Weaver of Iowa on a platform declaring that the government, and not banking corporations, should issue all money, that public lands should be kept for actual settlers, and that Congress should regulate commerce between the states.

The Prohibition party nominated their great temperance leader, General Neal Dow of Maine.



RUTHERFORD B. HAYES

JAMES A. GARFIELD

CHESTER A. ARTHUR

GROVER CLEVELAND

BENJAMIN HARRISON

CHAPTER XXXV

THE GARFIELD-ARTHUR ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1881-1885

631. Garfield and Arthur Are Elected. At the election of 1880 the Republican candidate, James A. Garfield, was elected by a majority of fifty electoral votes over Hancock, the Democratic nominee. Chester A. Arthur was chosen Vice-president. The result of the election was remarkable for its clear division between the two sections, the North and the South. The Republicans carried all the northern states except New Jersey, Nevada and California; the Democrats carried every southern state.

James A. Garfield (1831-1881), a native of Ohio, grew up in a log cabin in the backwoods of his native state. He became a lawyer, and after filling a professorship at Hiram College, Ohio, entered the Union army and attained the rank of major-general. This position he resigned to serve as representative in the National House until 1880, when he was elected Senator. Before the time of entering upon his duties as Senator, he was, however, elected President. While in public life he exhibited administrative talent of high order.

632. Garfield Is Assassinated. Although the country was at peace and general prosperity prevailed at the beginning of Garfield's administration, the new President became at once involved in factional troubles due to the Spoils System. He had been in office only four months when he was shot (July 2, 1881) in a railroad station at Washington, by a disappointed and half-crazed office-seeker, Charles Guiteau. The wounded President hovered between life and death during the hot summer months and died September 19, at the seashore, at

Elberon, New Jersey, whither he had been taken in the hope that the ocean air would benefit him. He was mourned by the whole nation.

633. Arthur Assumes the Office. Vice-president Chester A. Arthur took the presidential oath at his home in New York only a few hours after Garfield's death. Two days later he made a public renewal of the oath in the Capitol at Washington in the presence of the justices of the Supreme Court.

Chester A. Arthur (1830-1886) was a native of Vermont. He became a lawyer, and took part in the Civil War, but he was little known by the country outside of New York. Fears were entertained that the consequences which followed the succession of Vice-presidents Tyler and Johnson might be repeated, but, fortunately, Arthur proved himself an able, fearless, and impartial executive.

634. The Star Route Frauds. It was found (1881) that high officials of the government, including United States Senator Dorsey and Second Assistant Postmaster-General Brady, had conspired with the mail-carrying contractors of the "star routes" and defrauded the government of large sums of money. The star routes were mail lines in the middle west, where mail could not be carried by railroads or steamboats. They were thus called because the stations were marked on the map by stars. At the time the pay for the service on the respective routes was \$143,169. By increasing the number of trips per week and shortening the contract time for each trip, contractors managed to raise the compensation to \$622,808. The profits were alleged to have been divided between the contractors and the members of the ring at Washington. The principal offenders were tried but not convicted.

635. The Civil Service Reform Act—The Pendleton Act. The Spoils System had been producing its evil results for more than half a century, and a great many political scandals could be traced directly to it. Still, no political party had the courage to abolish the system. The party out of power always denounced

it, while the party in power was glad of the opportunity to award the offices to its political workers. During Grant's presidency an effort was made to reform the Civil Service, and President Hayes ineffectively urged Congress to continue the work. Now popular opinion had become loud in its demand for reform. As a result, the Pendleton Civil Service Act, so called from its author, Senator Pendleton of Ohio, was passed (1883) by the united efforts of the two parties and received the signature of the President. This act, introducing the "merit system," as it was called, provided that applicants for certain public offices should be examined by civil service examiners appointed by the President; that officers should not be removed for political reasons; that assessments should not be made upon officeholders to pay campaign expenses; and that a commission be appointed to manage and develop the new system. President Arthur applied this system at once to the departments at Washington and to all customhouses and post-offices where more than fifty clerks were employed. It has since been extended to the railway mail service, to the Indian service, and other offices.

636. Reduction of Postage on Letters. Congress passed (1883) a law reducing the rate on letters from three to two cents for each half ounce or fraction thereof. Two years later (1885) letter postage was reduced to two cents for each ounce or fraction thereof, while postage on newspapers and other regular periodicals was reduced from two cents to one cent per pound. Provision was also made for delivering letters by special messengers within the limits of free-delivery offices. An extra ten-cent stamp was required for the special delivery. Postage stamps were introduced in 1847, but did not come into general use until 1855. Stamped envelopes were first furnished by the government in 1852, and postal cards in 1872.

637. Centennials. In 1881 the nation celebrated the hundredth anniversary of the British surrender (1781) at Yorktown by a great naval display. After the ceremonies President

Arthur ordered a national salute to the British flag in recognition of our country's friendship with Great Britain. To mark the hundredth anniversary of the first exportation of cotton, the South opened (1881) a great cotton exhibition at Atlanta, Georgia, and another on a much larger scale (1884) at New Orleans, the greatest cotton market in America. The importance of these expositions was not so much in the display of any special article as in the fact that they directly proved that the South had, in truth, become a "New South," with thousands of manufacturing and mining enterprises and thou-



A COTTON FIELD

sands of miles of railroads. Where in 1784 one bale of cotton was exported from Charleston, South Carolina, millions of bales were now exported. The white man took part with the black in common labor and trade enterprises, while the freedman now received compensation for his

labor and enjoyed a home of his own. Great numbers of schools were maintained for the blacks and whites, though the two races strictly avoided, as is still the case, all social intercourse.

638. Restriction of Chinese Immigration. Congress had repeatedly attempted, without success, to exclude the Chinese from the country. In 1880 a treaty was negotiated with the Chinese government by which Chinese immigration might be stopped by the United States. Consequently, in 1882 Congress passed an act forbidding Chinese immigration for a period of

ten years. This enactment was soon followed by another and more stringent law in 1885.

Neither of these Chinese exclusion laws was perfectly drawn, and hence they were easily evaded by immigration through Canada and in other ways.

639. The Brooklyn Bridge. One of the events during Arthur's administration which proved the rapid progress of the country was the completion (1883) of the great Brooklyn suspension bridge. It spanned the East River and connected New York City and Brooklyn. In design and construction this bridge is a most stupendous engineering work.

640. The Tariff Becomes a Party Issue. In 1862 the tariff was considerably increased to raise sufficient revenue for carrying on the Civil War. This tariff had not since been reduced, and hence a large surplus had accumulated in the treasury, which fact withheld much money from circulation. It was generally feared that the large surplus hoarded in the national treasury and withdrawn from circulation might finally cause a financial panic. The Civil War debt had already been considerably reduced, but the surplus could not, as yet, be used to pay off the rest of it, because the debt had been refunded by issuing new bonds at a lower rate of interest, instead of paying the old bonds as they became due, and these new obligations had not yet fallen due. It was, therefore, desired by many prominent leaders of both parties that the income be reduced by a modification of the tariff. During Arthur's term an unsuccessful attempt was made to effect this, and as the time for the presidential election approached, the tariff question and Civil Service Reform became prominent campaign issues.

641. The Campaign of 1884. The campaign of 1884 was a stirring one. Again there were four parties in the field.

The Republicans in their convention at Chicago nominated James G. Blaine of Maine, who, because of his magnetic personality, was called the "plumed knight." He had been

Speaker of the House for three consecutive terms; his public record was long and brilliant. The Democrats at St. Louis named Grover Cleveland of New York as their candidate; the National Greenback, the former Greenback party, chose Benjamin F. Butler of Massachusetts; and the Prohibition party John P. St. John of Kansas. Blaine had been suspected of dishonorable dealings with corporations while a member of Congress; hence, his nomination caused a split in the Republican party. The faction which refused to support Blaine assumed the name Independents, but were sarcastically called "Mugwumps" (an Indian term, meaning big or important men) by their opponents.

CHAPTER XXXVI

GROVER CLEVELAND'S ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRAT—1885-1889

642. Cleveland and Hendricks Are Elected. At the vigorously contested election of 1884 the Democrats for the first time since 1857 were victorious. Grover Cleveland was elected by a majority of thirty-five electoral votes over the Republican candidate, James G. Blaine. Thomas A. Hendricks was chosen Vice-president.

Grover Cleveland (1837-1908) was a native of New Jersey. He received a fair education, studied law, and entered upon its practice at Buffalo, New York. After honorably filling many local offices, he became the governor of the state (1883). Cleveland's administration was characterized by singleness of purpose, economy of management, and the exercise of good judgment in public affairs. He adhered strictly to the regulations governing the Civil Service, although under the Constitution he was not relieved from making a large number of appointments. Changes, however, were made gradually, and during the first half of his term there were few removals for political purposes; in fact, Cleveland's attitude in this matter, as also his many vetoes, especially of private pension bills, cost him the support of the leading men of his party. He believed that the pensions were the cause of a vast number of frauds against the government, and that many of them were an unnecessary expense.

643. Three Important Laws—The Presidential Succession Law. As the Republicans retained control of the Senate during Cleveland's administration, no great party legislation was

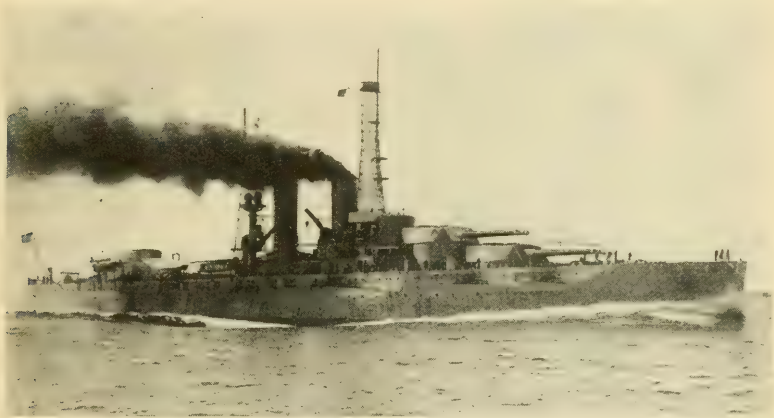
enacted. Important laws passed were: the Presidential Succession Act; a law increasing the size of the navy and placing it upon a modern footing; and the Interstate Commerce Act.

Vice-president Hendricks died shortly after his entrance upon office. The event called attention to the fact that the Constitution did not amply provide for succession to the presidency in case both the President and the Vice-president should die or be disabled. Accordingly, Congress enacted (1886) a law which decided that in case of vacancy the cabinet members should succeed to the presidency, if eligible, in order of the establishment of their departments.

In accordance with the Constitution (Article 2, Section 1, Clause 5), Congress had already passed a law (1792) providing that in case both the President and the Vice-president should die or be removed, the President pro tempore of the Senate, and in case there was none, the Speaker of the House should act as President until the election of a new executive. This law was of doubtful constitutionality, and, moreover, did not provide for the contingency of filling the vacancy in the presidential chair in case there should be neither a President pro tempore of the Senate nor a Speaker of the House of Representatives. Under the provision of the new law (1886) the order of succession is in accordance with the order in which the various departments were created; namely,

- (1) Secretary of State, 1789;
- (2) Secretary of War, 1789;
- (3) Secretary of the Treasury, 1789;
- (4) Attorney-General, 1789;
- (5) Postmaster-General, 1789;
- (6) Secretary of the Navy, 1798;
- (7) Secretary of the Interior, 1849;
- (8) Secretary of Agriculture, 1889;
- (9) Secretary of Commerce and Labor, 1903;
- (10) Secretary of Labor, 1913 (Labor being then made a separate department).

644. Improvement of the Navy. During the twenty years succeeding the Civil War nothing had been done to build up our navy. The ships in use during the Civil War had either been disposed of or had become useless through age. Our commerce needed the protection of a navy worthy of a great nation. Accordingly, Congress adopted (1883) a plan recommended by a board appointed for the purpose during the previous administration. This plan called for the building of four steel cruisers within a period of eight years at an expenditure of thirty million dollars. It was put into immediate



UNITED STATES BATTLESHIP "TEXAS"

execution by an order of Congress. This was the beginning of our present splendid navy, which ranks third in tonnage among the navies of the world.

645. The Interstate Commerce Law. The railroads of the United States, which were doing much toward developing the resources of the country, and which had originally been built in short lines, were being rapidly consolidated into larger ones, under the control of great corporations. Much of the railroad business, in consequence, passed from intrastate to interstate commerce. The outcome was the ruin of effective competition

by discrimination of rates. The rates, on the whole, were not too high, but they were not uniform. In many instances low freight rates were granted to certain large shippers and to distant cities, while higher rates were collected from nearer cities and smaller shippers. Naturally, this discrimination built up some manufacturers and ruined others.

To remedy these abuses in railroad transportation, Congress enacted (1887) the Interstate Commerce Law, which provided:

- (a) that railroad charges must be just and reasonable;
- (b) that there be no unjust discrimination between persons or localities;
- (c) that pooling be considered illegal;
- (d) that there be full publicity of rates;
- (e) that an Interstate Commerce Commission of five persons be authorized to investigate and to report concerning grievances and violations of the Act.

646. Repeal of the Tenure of Office Act—Australian Ballot System. During this administration the Tenure of Office Act which served as a pretext for the impeachment of President Johnson was repealed (1887).

By the old method of conducting elections, political parties and candidates for office were allowed to furnish their own ballots. Consequently, frauds and abuses were common, and this led the public to demand a reform in methods of voting in both the state and national elections.

Accordingly, many of the states adopted the Australian ballot method, so called because it was first perfected in Australia. In the course of a few years (1888-1892) it found favor in nearly all the states.

647. The Statue of Liberty. An immense statue of bronze, representing "Liberty Enlightening the World," in the form of a woman holding aloft a torch, was unveiled on Bedloe's Island (1886) in the harbor of New York. This statue by the famous French sculptor Bartholdi is one hundred and fifty-one feet high. It rests on a stone pedestal one hundred and fifty-

five feet high. The statue was erected by subscription in France, and was presented to the United States in commemoration of the Declaration of Independence.

648. Anarchist Movement. The year 1886 became noted for its many strikes and riots, the chief centers of which were St. Louis and Chicago. The greatest of these occurred in Chicago, where some forty thousand men left their employment. The strikers marched through the streets, and soon factories and workshops came to a stop. Several hundred persons, led by a band of anarchists, gathered at Haymarket Square and threatened a serious riot. When the police ordered the ring-leaders to disperse, some one threw a dynamite bomb into the crowd, killing seven policemen and wounding many others. Three of the leaders were executed, two received sentences of life imprisonment, and one escaped sentence by suicide.

649. Death of Eminent Men. This administration

witnessed the death of an unusually large number of distinguished men, among whom may be mentioned:

- (a) The Venerable Cardinal McCloskey (1885); (Archbishop Gibbons of Baltimore was chosen by the reigning Pontiff, Leo XIII, to succeed the deceased cardinal);
- (b) ex-President Grant (1885);
- (c) General G. B. McClellan (1885);



THE STATUE OF LIBERTY

- (d) Vice-president Hendricks (1885);
- (e) General Winfield S. Hancock of Gettysburg fame (1885);
- (f) Samuel J. Tilden, prosecutor of the Tweed Ring (1886);
- (g) ex-President Chester A. Arthur (1886);
- (h) General Sheridan of Shenandoah fame (1888).

650. The Mills Tariff Bill Is Lost. By this time a large surplus had accumulated in the Treasury. It was generally thought unwise to keep this money from circulation. President Cleveland believed that the national income should be reduced by lowering the tariff. He ascribed much of the discontent in the laboring world to the high tariff. The laboring classes, he declared, were not sharing the benefits of the high tariff with the great manufacturers. Consequently, he devoted his annual message (1887) chiefly to the recommendation of the desired tariff reduction—a fact which cost him re-election at the end of his term. In accordance with the President's proposal, Congressman Mills, a Texas Democrat, introduced a bill advocating a reduction of the protective tariff. The bill passed the House, but was lost in the Senate, and thus the tariff question was again left, as in 1884, to become a clear issue between the parties in the campaign of 1888. The Democrats stood for a tariff "for revenue only." The Republicans argued that this meant "free trade," and they demanded the protection of the American laborers against competition with laborers in European countries, where the scale of wages was much lower. The products of European "pauper labor," they thought, should not be allowed to sell for less than the products of American labor. The Democrats, on the other hand, held that the protective tariff caused high prices in the country, which offset the high wages, and that the profits arising in the protected industries were not fairly divided between the manufacturer and his workmen.

651. The Campaign of 1888. The Democrats in their convention at St. Louis nominated Grover Cleveland for re-election.

tion on a platform demanding chiefly economy in public expenses and a tariff "for revenue only." The Republicans at Chicago named Benjamin Harrison on a platform strongly advocating a tariff "for protection," the reduction of the revenue by repealing taxes on tobacco, and also spirits used in the arts, and free importation of those articles which are not produced in this country. The Prohibitionists and the Union Labor Party also had candidates in the field.

This campaign was characterized by an unusual expenditure of money by the national committees of both the Republican and Democratic parties, and by great processions of the Republicans (similar to those of the Democrats in 1840). Tippecanoe clubs were formed everywhere—owing to the fact that the Republican candidate, Benjamin Harrison, was the grandson of former President William Harrison.

CHAPTER XXXVII

BENJAMIN HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1889-1893

652. Harrison and Morton Are Elected: At the election of 1888, Benjamin Harrison, the candidate of the Republican party, was chosen President by a majority of sixty-five electoral votes over the Democratic nominee, Grover Cleveland. Levi P. Morton of New York was chosen Vice-president. At this election the Australian ballot was used for the first time in the choice of presidential electors.

Benjamin Harrison (1833-1901) was a native of Ohio. He won distinction as a lawyer, rose to the rank of brigadier-general in the Civil War, and was a United States Senator (1881-1887). As President, he surrounded himself by an able Cabinet, and his administration was characterized by general progress and a firm defense of American interests in foreign affairs.

653. The Dependent Pension Bill. The triumph of the Republican party in the presidential election, in which the tariff was the main issue, seemed a popular decision in favor of raising protective duties still higher. Consequently, the Republican administration promptly proceeded toward carrying out its principal party measure with a free hand. It first provided for the reduction of the surplus in the treasury by the enactment of the Dependent Pension Bill (1890). This measure pensioned not only all Union soldiers who had served ninety days and were unable to earn a living, but also their widows, children, and dependent parents. The annual amount expended for pensions rose from over seventy-two million dollars (1890) to about one hundred and forty millions (1897).

654. The McKinley Tariff Bill. The tariff question, which had been the issue of several presidential campaigns, was again taken up in the Republican Congress of 1890. The result was the McKinley Tariff Bill, so named after its author. By this act the average duties on imported goods were raised from forty-three to about forty-nine per cent—far higher than those of any tariff before or during the war. A scheme of reciprocity was provided for, by which certain articles were allowed free entry into the country from such nations as might agree on similar concessions to the United States. The McKinley Tariff was in some instances prohibitory; that is, it placed so high a tariff on certain goods as to prevent their importation. The bill at once caused an advance in the prices of manufactures without a corresponding advance in wages, and, consequently, became so unpopular that in the congressional election of that year the Democrats gained control of the House by a large majority.

655. Samoan Difficulty. The long standing policy of our government, established under Washington, to have no entanglements with foreign nations, was violated during an insurrection in the Samoan Islands (1888), a little monarchy governed by native princes. The German minister to the island sided with the insurgents, while the United States agent upheld the established authority of the native princes. The result was that serious difficulties arose between the representatives of the two nations. Men-of-war were sent to the island to uphold the German cause, while a section of the American navy was dispatched to support that of the United States.

While the ships of the two great nations were thus lying face to face in a harbor of the South Pacific Ocean, a violent hurricane arose (1889) and both the American and German war vessels were wrecked with serious loss of life. England became interested in the affair and sided with the United States. Matters were coming to a serious crisis when,

by the Berlin Treaty, the three countries agreed upon the maintenance of peace and order in the islands.

656. The Pan-American Congress. Harrison's administration became famous for an international, or Pan-American, Congress, composed of sixty-six delegates from the Northern, Southern, and Central American Republics. It assembled (1889) in Washington in answer to an invitation by the United States, and discussed questions of closer business relations and better means of communication. Secretary Blaine, as president of the conference, exercised great influence. Nothing very definite resulted, however, except that a Bureau of American Republics was established for the prompt collection and distribution of commercial information concerning the Latin American countries, and a resolution was passed recommending that the republics of North, South, and Central America settle by arbitration all disputes and difficulties that might arise among them.

657. The Sherman Silver Coinage Act. The continued decline in the price of silver had led the silver-producing states of the West to demand a larger use of this coin. They hoped thereby to provide a market for their metal and to raise its value to the old standard. Accordingly, the Sherman Act, presented by Senator Sherman of Ohio, was passed (1890). It provided:

- (a) that the Bland-Allison Bill be repealed;
- (b) that the Secretary of the Treasury purchase four and one-half million ounces of silver every month;
- (c) that payment for this silver be made in treasury notes as a legal tender, redeemable in coin;
- (d) that the silver bullion be stored in the treasury after July 1, 1891, and silver certificates be issued to the value of the bullion in the treasury. This law was expected to keep up the price of silver; it failed to do so, however, and the silver question became one of the most important before the country.

658. The New Orleans Riot. A serious riot occurred in New Orleans (1891), in which a mob, taking a number of Italians from the city jail, shot some and hanged others. This riot was occasioned by the murder of a popular chief of police. Five of the leaders in the murderous assault on the chief, though tried in court, were acquitted in the face of positive evidence against them. The people, believing the jury had been bribed or intimidated by the Mafia, an Italian secret society, took matters into their own hands. Some of the men taken from prison and killed were naturalized citizens; some, however, still owed allegiance to Italy, and their country demanded an indemnity. The United States at first disavowed all responsibility, since the matter was an affair entirely under the control of the State of Louisiana, but finally agreed to pay twenty-five thousand dollars toward the support of the families of those who had been killed. Thus peaceful relations with Italy were again restored.

659. Trouble with Chile. Another quite unexpected and complicated affair occurred in Chile (1891). On the occasion of a civil war in that country, our minister failed to preserve neutrality. An angered Chilean mob attacked a number of American sailors, killing two and wounding eighteen. The United States sternly demanded satisfaction, whereupon Chile, disavowing the act, promptly offered and paid an indemnity of seventy-five thousand dollars for the families of the murdered and wounded.

In the negotiations with Italy and Chile, Blaine, the able Secretary of State, showed great skill and prudence.

660. The International Copyright Law. Europeans had long expressed dissatisfaction because of the want of an American law protecting their copyrights in our country. Congress enacted (1891) an international copyright law, which gave copyright protection to authors of such nations as would extend the like privilege to American authors. Before the existence of this law, any foreign literary production could be published

and sold in this country without the payment of a royalty to the author. It is fair to say, however, that, for the most part, a sense of honor induced those who made use of the opportunity to pay the foreign author a reasonable compensation.

661. The Seal Fishery Question. After the purchase of Alaska (1867) the United States assumed entire control of the seal fisheries in Bering Sea. England, however, claimed that the jurisdiction of the United States did not extend beyond a three-mile limit and encouraged the Canadians in sealing outside of that boundary. Matters were brought to a crisis when our cruisers began to attack and confiscate (1886) the Canadian seal vessels. The trouble was, however, adjusted by a board of arbitrators, who met at Paris (1893). This board



THE OPENING OF OKLAHOMA

decided that the United States had no jurisdiction over the seal fisheries beyond the three-mile limit, but that both nations might join in protecting the seals in the open water to prevent their extermination. This adjustment of the difficulty concerning seal fisheries without appeal to arms was another of the many triumphs of arbitration.

662. Oklahoma Territory Opened—Six New States Admitted. Shortly after Harrison's inauguration, the United States purchased Oklahoma, which then formed a part of Indian Territory, from the Creek and Seminole Indians. In order to prevent unlawful speculation, the President issued a proclamation forbidding entrance into the territory before noon of April 12, 1889. As the soil and climate of the new territory were particularly desirable, about fifty thousand people called

“boomers” gathered on the border, and at the first blast of the bugle rushed into the “promised land.” Then began the scramble for selecting lands from the two million acres which were thrown open to settlement that eventful day. Cities and towns and a new commonwealth were created in a wilderness within twenty-four hours.

Four states entered the Union in 1899—North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington. Two entered in 1890—Idaho and Wyoming.

663. The Johnstown Flood. The city of Johnstown and a number of villages located on the Conemaugh River in western Pennsylvania suffered an appalling disaster May 1, 1889. A dam in the river gave way and the flood swept villages and towns before it. The greater part of Johnstown was destroyed. Thousands of lives and millions of dollars' worth of property were lost. Again, as in similar instances, the generosity of the American people came to the aid of the stricken inhabitants.

664. Two Centennials. The hundredth anniversary of the beginning of our government under the Constitution and the inauguration of Washington was commemorated by a grand three days' celebration in New York City (April, 1889). Characteristic features of the festivities were naval and military reviews, and a grand parade exhibiting all the industries and the trades of the American metropolis. Commemorative exercises were held at the Sub-Treasury Building on Wall Street, which occupies the site of Old Federal Hall where Washington took the presidential oath. At the close of the exercises, the Most Reverend Archbishop Corrigan of New York gave his blessing to the assembled multitudes.

In November of the Constitutional Centennial (1889), the Catholic Church of America also celebrated the first centenary anniversary of the establishment of its hierarchy.

665. The First Catholic Lay Congress. The celebration of the centennials of the inauguration of Washington as the first President of the nation, and the installment of the Very Rev-

erend Father Carroll as first Bishop of the United States, were marked also by the meeting of the first Catholic Lay Congress in the United States. It was composed of fifteen hundred delegates from the several dioceses, including men of various nationalities, also Indians and negroes—all of whom joined in perfect harmony for the common purposes of the occasion which were: increased activity on the part of the laity in aid of the clergy; a declaration of views on the important Catholic questions of the hour; and the assistance of the poor.

666. Indian Troubles—Strikes. Trouble with the Sioux Indians again broke out (1890) in Dakota. Sitting Bull, having once more excited his tribe to hostility, engaged in a bloody battle with the United States troops under General Miles at Wounded Knee, South Dakota. About two hundred Indians were killed, among whom were Sitting Bull, his son, Crow Foot, and six other famous warriors. The Indians, seeing the hopelessness of continuing the strife, finally surrendered.

The workmen of the Carnegie Steel Works at Homestead, near Pittsburg, struck (1892) for higher wages. Scenes of violence occurred, and a number of persons were killed. A military force sent by the government of Pennsylvania finally occupied the city and restored order.

667. The Campaign of 1892. In the campaign of 1892, Harrison was again the nominee of the Republican party, and Cleveland the choice of the Democrats. Their platforms were much the same as in 1888. The People's party, an outgrowth of the Greenback party, named James B. Weaver of Iowa as its candidate on a platform demanding among other things, the free coinage of silver and gold at a ratio of sixteen to one, an income tax from persons having an income exceeding four thousand dollars per year, the control of railroads, telegraphs, and similar public service corporations by the government, a national currency to be loaned to the people at two per cent on the security of certain farm products, and the issue of money by the government only, and not by the banks.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

GROVER CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRAT—1893-1897

668. Cleveland and Stevenson Are Elected. The result of the election of 1892 was a sweeping victory for the Democratic party, which elected both the President and Congress. Grover Cleveland was chosen by a majority of one hundred and thirty-two electoral votes over Benjamin Harrison, and a plurality of one hundred and ten votes over Harrison and Weaver. Adlai E. Stevenson was chosen Vice-president.

669. The Panic of 1893. Cleveland, as we have noted, began his administration with a Democratic majority in both houses of Congress—something unheard of since the outbreak of the war. The country, too, was enjoying unusual prosperity. But the pension, tariff, and monetary legislation of the previous presidency had greatly disturbed the financial world. Scarcely had the Democratic administration begun its career, when a great currency famine and, subsequently, a disastrous panic swept over the country. Hundreds of banks failed; business houses suspended work; thousands of laborers were thrown out of employment; great distress became apparent among the poorer classes; strikes were common, and the number of vagrants increased enormously.

The reasons for the panic of 1893 may be found in the following facts:

- (a) the manufacturers of the country feared that Democratic supremacy would decrease or do away with the protective tariff. Such a turn of affairs, they argued, would flood our markets with foreign articles, greatly reduce prices, and, consequently, occasion disaster to those in

possession of a large stock of home manufactures. Therefore they suspended work in their shops as soon as it became evident that the Democrats would win the election. Thus thousands of workmen were left without means of support and the business of the country was prostrate;

- (b) the greenbacks in circulation amounted to a very large sum, and the monthly quantity of bullion, which the treasurer was directed to buy, was to be paid for with new notes "exchangeable for coin." Now, "coin" meant gold. Thus, the notes in circulation were redeemable in gold to an enormous amount (five hundred million dollars in 1893). This sum was constantly being increased by the provisions of the Sherman Act, and naturally the people began to doubt the ability of the government to redeem the notes in gold. This serious condition of financial affairs finally brought the panic;
- (c) silver had fallen in twenty years (1873-1893) from one dollar and thirty cents to about eighty cents an ounce. This frightened American as well as European depositors and creditors, who feared that the government, not having enough gold in readiness, might decide to redeem its notes in silver, instead of gold. Hence they started "runs" on the banks to redeem their bonds and notes in gold before the government should offer pay for them in less valuable coin. Then came the crash: banks, being unable to meet the demands, failed; business men, finding it impossible to borrow money, had to suspend work, which meant the discharge of laborers and consequent hard times.

670. The Repeal of the Sherman Act. In order to stop the further purchase of silver bullion and consequent issues of silver certificates, which continued to drain the gold in the treasury, Cleveland summoned a special session of Congress and advised the repeal of the Sherman Act. Shortly after,

a bill passed the House, and also the Senate, after a long and exciting opposition (November, 1893). Thus the purchase of silver was stopped, but the money question was not settled, and became the main issue of the campaign of 1896. Nor did the repeal of the Sherman Act have immediate effects upon the distressing conditions of the laboring world; for it was estimated that, at the beginning of winter, there were still hundreds of thousands of unemployed. Furthermore, the decline in the value of silver closed the silver mines of the West, and thus threw thousands of miners out of employment.

671. The Wilson Tariff Act. The tariff plank formed the principal difference between the Republican and Democratic platforms: the Republicans advocated a high protective tariff, the Democrats a tariff for revenue only. The Democrats having won the election on the tariff issue, set about revising the tariff by passing the Wilson Bill (1893), presented by Representative Wilson. The Wilson Tariff Act differed from the McKinley Bill chiefly in the degree of protection it called for. The Wilson Tariff Act lowered the revenue rate of the McKinley Act from about fifty per cent to nearly thirty-seven per cent, and placed many articles on the free list.

The Democratic reduction of the tariff was imprudently made at the wrong juncture of affairs. As it was, the income of the government was insufficient to cover its current expenses, and much of the gold in the national treasury passed into foreign hands in payment of bonds offered for redemption; in other words, foreigners withdrew the money which they had invested in the United States. Meanwhile, Americans throughout the country began to hoard the gold that came into their possession. Hence, to meet demands, the government was obliged to issue new bonds, that is, borrow money, and before the close of Cleveland's presidency the national debt had been increased about two hundred and fifty million dollars. Under such conditions the Wilson Tariff was naturally unpopular. The Democrats did not succeed in pass-

ing another party measure and the triumph of the Republicans seemed assured in the next election.

672. The Hawaiian Revolution. Even before the expiration of Harrison's administration the natives of Hawaii, instigated by American seamen, but especially by our minister to the islands, rose in rebellion against their queen, Liliuokalani. She was deposed (1893), and a provisional government consisting largely of Americans was organized and application was made to the United States for annexation. This action was strongly opposed in the Senate on the plea that the people of Hawaii

had not been fully and fairly consulted. The matter was still pending when Cleveland succeeded to the presidency. Cleveland investigated the state of affairs, and, finding that the Americans had again violated Washington's policy by taking sides in the rebellion, and that they had unfairly treated



GROUNDS OF OAHU COLLEGE, HONOLULU, HAWAII

a weak power, opposed the annexation of the islands. His attempt, however, to restore the queen to power failed. The independent republic which the Hawaiians organized (1894) continued until the United States (1898) finally took control of Hawaii. The islands were organized into the Territory of Hawaii in 1900. Cleveland's Hawaiian policy called forth some stinging criticisms. It is now, however, generally admitted that his attitude in the affair was admirable.

Catholicity has made considerable progress in Hawaii. There are many churches and schools in charge of Religious. Besides

the work of education, Catholic charity has also taken upon itself the care of the lepers, for whom the Hawaiian government set apart the island of Molokai. Here labored the heroic and self-sacrificing Father Damien, the apostle of the lepers, and here still labor his devoted successors.

673. The Monroe Doctrine and Venezuela. Cleveland soon had an opportunity to show the critics of his Hawaiian policy that he was capable of determined action. A boundary dispute of long standing between Venezuela and British Guiana induced the President to apply the Monroe Doctrine. Great Britain was apparently trying to secure territory from Venezuela not rightfully belonging to her and refused both the appeal of Venezuela and the advice of the United States to settle affairs by arbitration. For a while war seemed imminent. Cleveland in a special message to Congress declared that the Monroe Doctrine must be respected and that the United States was bound to resist in every possible manner the encroachments of Great Britain on Venezuela. Congress forgot its party differences and unanimously supported the President. England finally agreed to arbitration and matters were peaceably adjusted. Cleveland's quick move and unfaltering position at once won for him great popular favor.

674. Other Measures of Cleveland's Administration. Congress repealed (1894) the Force Bill, which, passed in 1870, had been the cause of much bitter feeling and strife in the South.

Cleveland extended the Civil Service Law by placing a great many more Federal officials under the examination system provided for by the Civil Service Reform Act of 1892.

Utah, though possessing a population of two hundred and seven thousand (1890), had been refused admission to the Union as a state because of the existence of polygamy among the Mormons in that territory. It was, however, finally admitted (1896) as the forty-fifth state, after the adoption of a state constitution prohibiting polygamy.

Relations between the United States and Spain were somewhat strained during Cleveland's administration because of affairs in Cuba. Successive governors of this island were unable to suppress an insurrection, which was secretly assisted by American money and by Cuban filibustering expeditions equipped in American harbors.

675. World's Columbian Exposition. Under Cleveland's second administration, the World's Columbian Exposition was held (1893) in Chicago. It commemorated the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus. This international exposition far surpassed all previous ones of the kind in completeness and magnificence. The chief object of this fair, which was to give evidence of the great progress in civilization during the past four centuries, was most successfully accomplished. It not only gave proofs of the growth of our people in the industrial lines, but also showed that the Americans might justly be proud of their wonderful intellectual advancement. All the states and the leading foreign nations were represented by special palaces in the "White City," as the group of exposition buildings was called.

676. Strikes—Riots—Boycotts. Great panics lead to strikes and vagrancy. Such was the case after the panic of 1893. A certain horse-dealer named Coxey gathered a so-called "industrial army," composed of workingmen, tramps, criminals, and the unemployed of all classes. This "army" began its march from Ohio to Washington to demand relief from the government. Similar "armies" set out from Texas and the Pacific states. They managed to reach the national capital, where they achieved nothing, and soon disbanded.

Several thousand workmen employed by the Pullman Car Company, at Pullman, near Chicago, struck for higher wages, and boycotts occurred on more than twenty railroads running out of Chicago. The employees of these railroads struck in order to prevent the use of Pullman cars until the company should raise the wages of their laborers. Business was sus-

pended in Chicago, and travel became dangerous. Meat and other provisions could not be transported. Trade and industry were thrown into confusion and much railroad property destroyed. The money losses amounted to not less than seven million dollars. A force combined of United States troops and state militia finally restored order after a number of weeks.

677. The Bryan-McKinley Campaign. The campaign of 1896, known as the "silver campaign," or the "battle of the two standards," gold and silver, was one of the most exciting and memorable campaigns in our recent history. It was generally believed that the hard times during Cleveland's administration were caused chiefly by the repeal of the Sherman Act, and the subsequent fall in the price of silver, as well as by the low average of the protective tariff provided for by the Wilson Act. Consequently, when the time of election drew near, it became evident that the main issues of the campaign would be the tariff and silver coinage.

The Republican national convention met at St. Louis and nominated William McKinley of Ohio on a platform which declared for protection and reciprocity, and rejected the free coinage of silver, except by international agreement. The Democrats met at Chicago and named William Jennings Bryan of Nebraska on a platform strongly demanding an unlimited coinage of silver and gold at a ratio of sixteen to one. The Populists, or People's party, in their convention at St. Louis accepted the presidential nominee of the Democrats. The "gold" Democrats, under the name of National Democrats, met at Indianapolis and nominated J. M. Palmer of Illinois, on a platform declaring for a single gold standard.

CHAPTER XXXIX

WILLIAM MCKINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1897-1901

678. McKinley and Hobart Are Elected. At the election of 1896, William McKinley was elected by a majority of ninety-five electoral votes over William J. Bryan. Garret A. Hobart was chosen Vice-president.



WILLIAM MCKINLEY

William McKinley (1843-1901) was a native of Ohio. In the Civil War he rose to the rank of major; later he served as congressman from his state. Well educated, gentle, and dignified of character, he endeared himself to the people by his blameless private life, rare tact, and high executive ability. As a politician he was keen and far-sighted and knew how to win the esteem and

respect of his opponents. His presidential administration, though successful on the whole, was overshadowed by issues resulting from the Spanish War and the acquisition of outlying possessions.

679. The Dingley Tariff. The Wilson Tariff Act did not secure sufficient revenue to meet the needs of the government; hence, a few days after his inauguration, President McKinley called an extra session of Congress to consider the revision of the tariff. As a result, the Dingley Tariff Bill, presented by Representative Dingley, was finally passed after much opposition from the Senate (1897). This act, in accordance with the policy of the party in power, was thoroughly protective, and raised the duties to the highest average known in our history (to over fifty per cent). Free trade on articles not manufactured in our country was again provided for.

680. The Monetary Commission. In order to meet the demand of the monetary plank in the Republican platform of the campaign, the President appointed a monetary commission composed of three members, with Senator Wolcott of Colorado as chairman, to confer and if possible to reach an agreement with other countries concerning an international basis for the coinage of gold and silver. As England refused to enter into any negotiations, and as India had already suspended silver coinage, the commission did not attain the desired purpose. If it had succeeded, current coin would have had uniform value in the countries included in the international union.

681. The Gold Standard Act. The Republicans, in their platform of 1896, favored the maintenance of a "gold standard," but owing to the fact that the majority in the Senate was composed of Democrats and silver Republicans, it was difficult for the party to effect any monetary reform. An act was, however, finally passed (1900) which definitely adopted the "gold standard;" made provisions for the increase of the gold reserve fund to one hundred and fifty million dollars; provided for the establishment of national banks in smaller towns and villages, and authorized the Secretary of the Treasury to issue long-time two per cent bonds, and with the income of these to pay the shorter time three, four, and five per cent bonds.

The "gold standard bill" provides that the dollar containing twenty-five and eight-tenths grains of gold, nine-tenths pure, shall be the standard unit of value, and that all forms of money issued or coined by the United States shall be maintained at a parity of value with this standard. It imposes on the Secretary of the Treasury the duty of maintaining this parity.

The two per cent refunding measure proved to be very successful. The significance of this measure may be seen from the fact that during its operation, the bonds of the United States bore lower interest than those of any other country; hence, for the first time in the history of the United States its credit was the best in the world.

THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR

682. The United States' Interest In Cuba. The problems of tariff revision and monetary reform were serious questions, but a grave international complication soon absorbed much of the thought and energy of the nation. Under the Queen-Mother Christina, regent for Alphonso XIII, Spain's difficulties with the United States about Cuba finally resulted in the Spanish-American War in 1898.

Cuba and Porto Rico were the only possessions left to Spain in the New World after the loss of her colonies on the mainland of the American continent. From the time that Florida became a part of the United States, our government had taken a deep interest in Cuba, as it feared that it might pass from Spain to more aggressive hands, especially England or France. Cuba had, furthermore, previous to the Civil War, been much coveted by the southern slave power. President Polk (1848) offered Spain one hundred million dollars for Cuba, but that nation promptly rejected the offer.

683. Conditions in Cuba. Cuba, taken from Spain by the English (1762), was, by the Treaty of Paris, returned to its original owner in exchange for Florida. From this time the

progress of the island was rapid under the reforms instituted by Luis Las Casas, the Spanish captain-general. During the nineteenth century, the Cubans were governed by a succession of captains-general, some of whom were honorable in their administrations, others of whom seemed to regard the office solely as a means of acquiring a fortune. A deadly hatred grew up between the Cubans and the Spaniards, which was caused by oppressive measures. These deprived the native Cubans of political and civil liberty, excluded them from public office, and burdened them with taxation. This resulted in repeated uprisings and a rebellion which, secretly supported in America, devastated Cuba for a period of ten years (1868-1878). Spain then promised the Cubans representation in the legislature, together with other needed reforms. Many of her promises were, however, not kept and a new revolt broke out (1895). Three successive governors-general, Campos, Weyler, and Blanco, were unable to suppress the insurrection, which was again secretly supported by American money and Cuban filibustering expeditions equipped in American harbors.

The methods of the Spanish authorities in putting down the rebellion were barbarous and resulted in widespread desolation. The non-combatants of the rural population that sympathized with the insurgents were compelled to leave their homes and move to the nearest towns, where thousands died of starvation and disease. Congress voted that supplies be forwarded to the suffering Cubans, and members of the Red Cross Society, led by Clara Barton, went to Cuba to relieve distress.

684. Self-Government in Cuba. The sympathy of the United States was naturally with the Cubans: many Americans resided in Cuba; American capital was invested there, and our commerce with the island amounted to several million dollars a year. Hence, President McKinley undertook by diplomacy to bring Spain and the Cubans to agree upon terms of peace.

685. The Explosion of the Maine. The United States government, in fact, the entire American people, were watching

Cuban affairs with intense interest, when, on the night of February 15, 1898, a terrific explosion destroyed the United States battleship *Maine* in Havana harbor. Two officers and two hundred and sixty-six sailors went down with the vessel. Captain Sigsbee of the *Maine*, in his official dispatch to Secretary of the Navy Long, advised that public opinion be suspended. A naval court of inquiry, appointed by the President, finally reported that the disaster was in no way due to fault or negligence on the part of the officers or members of the crew of the *Maine*, and that there was no evidence to suggest that the Spanish government or any of her officials were concerned in the matter. The Spanish authorities rendered every kindly service within their power to Captain Sigsbee and the survivors. Sensationalists at once made use of the event to inflame the minds of the people against Spain, and the probability of peace or war between this country and the United States was at once openly discussed.

In 1911 the *Maine* was raised at great expense for the purpose of ascertaining whether it was destroyed by a torpedo mine from without or by an explosion from within. Upon investigation, an official statement was made which substantially agreed with that of Captain Sigsbee, made some weeks after the disaster (1898), namely, that the *Maine* was first blown up from without, although the explosion of her own magazines a moment later caused her complete destruction. Notwithstanding the official but interested report of the government, an opinion, supported by weighty marine authority, is still common that the explosion was caused by an overheated magazine beneath the decks of the *Maine*.

686. Summary of Causes—Declaration of War. The Spanish-American War was of short duration (April 25, 1898-December 10, 1898). Its causes may be briefly summed up as follows:

Remote—The long existing desire in the United States that Spanish rule in Cuba be ended. The opportunity to bring this

about was seen in the uprisings, rebellions, and hardships occasioned by the arbitrary rule of the Spanish captains-general.

Immediate—A series of resolutions passed by both Houses of Congress (April 19, anniversary of Lexington and Concord) which declared: that the Cubans ought to be free and independent; that Spain must withdraw her troops from the island, and that the President be authorized to use the army and navy of the United States to compel Spain to relinquish her authority over Cuba. By another clause of the resolution, the United States promised to leave the government of the island to its people after its independence was achieved.

Spain was given five days to consider the resolutions. She replied by recalling her minister at Washington and dismissing the American minister from Madrid. As this action was equivalent to a declaration of war, Congress declared that war existed (April 25, 1898). The President called for two hundred thousand volunteers. Many times that number offered their services. Congress promptly appropriated fifty million dollars toward carrying on the war. The forts along the Atlantic were strengthened and protected by mines. A part of the American fleet under acting Rear Admiral Sampson was sent to blockade Havana; another part, under Commodore Winfield Scott Schley, was organized into a "flying squadron" to search for a Spanish fleet in command of Admiral Cervera, which was reported to have left the Cape Verde Islands.

687. Cervera's Fleet in Santiago Harbor. No one knew whether Cervera was bound for Cuba or whether he intended to surprise the cities on our eastern coast. Commodore Schley finally discovered the fleet in Santiago harbor, whither it had taken refuge to procure coal and other supplies. This harbor, known as "Cloverleaf Bay," opens through a narrow channel into the ocean. It was strongly fortified and well laid with mines, and consequently it would have been unwise for an attacking fleet to enter it. Sampson and Schley disposed all

their available vessels about the entrance of Santiago harbor and exercised a vigilant watch over Cervera's fleet.

688. Hobson's Exploit. As it was feared that Cervera's fleet might by some means escape in spite of the vigilance of Sampson and Schley, Ensign Richmond Hobson volunteered to close the harbor by sinking the coaling vessel *Merrimac* in the entrance to the harbor. With six brave companions, in the face of a terrific fire from the Spanish batteries, he succeeded in steaming the collier to a narrow part of the channel, where he sunk it. The vessel, however, did not block the entrance. Hobson and his men, who had thrown themselves into the water, were captured by Cervera, but were kindly treated by him in consideration of their bravery.

689. The Battle of Manila. Before a decisive engagement occurred at Cuba, the most far-reaching event of the war took place in the Philippine Islands. Commodore George Dewey, commanding an American fleet which was then at anchor in Hong-Kong harbor, was ordered to attack the Spanish fleet in the Philippines. He set sail immediately, and Sunday morning, May 1, entered Manila Bay, the chief harbor of the islands. After a masterly attack, he destroyed the enemy's fleet of eleven vessels. The Spanish sustained a heavy loss of life, while the American fleet lost neither in life nor ships. Dewey proceeded to blockade the city of Manila and then awaited the arrival of General Merritt with twenty thousand troops from San Francisco. A few weeks later (August 13) Manila and the islands surrendered. President McKinley appointed Dewey rear admiral and later he was given the highest rank in the navy—that of admiral—while Commodores Sampson and Schley were made rear admirals.

690. The Capture of Santiago—Destruction of Cervera's Fleet. Meantime, General W. R. Shafter with an army of eighteen thousand men had landed at a point a few miles distant from Santiago, to coöperate with Captain Sampson in the capture of the city. The outer line of defense at El Caney and

San Juan was taken by assault (July 1), and the Spanish troops driven into Santiago, which city was then practically at the mercy of the American army. Cervera sought safety by making a wild dash out of the harbor on the morning of July 2. The Americans gave chase with deadly fire. In a wild running fight every vessel of the Spanish fleet was either captured or sunk. The American vessels suffered little damage. Some six hundred Spaniards were killed or wounded and one thousand taken prisoners, while the Americans had but one man killed and three wounded. The presence of General Shafter's army before the city of Santiago and the loss of Cervera's fleet convinced the Spanish authorities of the uselessness of further resistance, and a few days later the Spanish commander, Toral, surrendered (July 14).

General Shafter's force was composed chiefly of regular soldiers, but included as volunteers a regiment of "Rough Riders" known as "The First Regiment of United States Volunteer Cavalry," who fought on foot. Leonard Wood was appointed colonel, and Theodore Roosevelt, who resigned his position as Assistant Secretary of the Navy for the purpose, lieutenant colonel.

691. Miles in Porto Rico—Treaty of Peace. Immediately after the destruction of Cervera's fleet, General Nelson A. Miles, then at the head of the army of the United States, proceeded to Porto Rico and took possession of several towns with little difficulty. Hostilities were stopped suddenly, however (August 11, 1898), by news from Washington that a treaty of peace had been drawn up and signed by the two nations. By the treaty Spain gave up all claim to Cuba, which she had held for four hundred years, and ceded to the United States Porto Rico, the island of Guam, and the Philippine Archipelago, for the sum of twenty million dollars.

692. Results of the War—Reconstruction of Cuba and Porto Rico. The Spanish-American war cost the United States one hundred and thirty million dollars and the loss of two hundred

and ninety-five men killed in battle, and it ended Spanish rule in the Western Hemisphere.

The United States occupied the island of Cuba, January 1, 1899, and appointed a military governor, pending the organization of a native government. This was established when Don Tomas Estrada Palma was inaugurated as president (May 20, 1902). With this event Cuba became a republic under the protection of the United States, which retained the right of a general supervision of the foreign affairs of the



THATCHED HUTS IN PORTO RICO

island. Porto Rico, as one of the spoils of the war, was organized as a United States dependency under a territorial form of government (May, 1900).

With the American occupation of Cuba, annual payments by the government to the Church for religious purposes ceased. The long discussion and investigation which ensued because of this ended in an adjustment, by a judicial commission (1902), in favor of the claims of the Church.

693. War Continues in the Philippines—Outcome. At the time of American occupancy of the Philippines, the natives of the islands, under the leadership of Emilio Aguinaldo, were

in revolt against Spain, and had set up a revolutionary government. They welcomed and aided the American troops, but upon finding that independence was denied them at the close of the war they took up arms against the Americans. Several years of bush or guerrilla fighting followed. A great many natives were killed, and United States troops finally occupied nearly all of the island of Luzon; Aguinaldo was captured and soon after swore allegiance to the United States. With this event hostilities ceased, and President McKinley (July 4, 1899) declared by proclamation the restoration of peace in the Philippines and extended a general amnesty to the former insurgents. William Howard Taft was then appointed governor of the islands, and during his term of office an honest and stable government was established.

In the Philippines there had been the strictest union of Church and State for more than three centuries, which fact naturally brought difficulties under the new American government. The most important problem was that of the religious orders and their relations to the native races. The cry for their banishment and spoliation could not be listened to, since there were some five million Catholics dependent on their ministrations. The record of the friars was a glorious one, and to their rule the natives of the island owed their exceptional prosperity; for these friars had transformed them from a barbarous Malay race into Christian people, and from the lowest grade of savagery had advanced them to a high form of civilization.

At the beginning of the American occupation of the islands, officers of the United States, with a few praiseworthy exceptions, looked on with indifference, or even approval, while numerous churches were desecrated and robbed; while the natives were encouraged not to submit to ecclesiastical authority; while the press attacked the Church and the Religious. Hence, to come to some satisfactory understanding, President Roosevelt finally entrusted Governor Taft of the Philippines

with a mission to the Vatican. In the Eternal City negotiations were entered into between Governor Taft and a commission of five Cardinals, and a mutual understanding was reached between the Vatican and the American government regarding the management of Philippine affairs.

694. International Peace Conference. In response to an invitation by the Russian Czar to an international conference, all the principal nations of the world sent (1899) prominent delegates to The Hague, in Holland. The paramount object of this congress was the consideration and adoption of some method whereby international differences might be settled by arbitration rather than by war. The crowning act of the convention was the establishment of an International Court of Arbitration at The Hague, in which fifteen of the world's foremost nations are represented.

695. The Settlement of the Samoan Trouble—Tutuila. The United States, Great Britain, and Germany assumed (1889) the rule of the Samoan Islands by joint agreement. This joint occupation occasioned, however, continual insurrections against the native rulers and many vexatious differences between the jointly ruling countries; but matters were adjusted by a final treaty (1899), according to which Great Britain relinquished her interests in the Samoan group and the islands were divided between Germany and the United States. Four of them, including Tutuila, the largest of the group, and Pango Pango, which had the best harbor in the Pacific, were allotted to the United States. The islands of Christmas, Baker, Midway, Wake, and Howland, lying in the Pacific, and never claimed by any power, were also annexed to the United States. These islands, especially Tutuila, serve the United States as convenient coaling, naval, and cable stations. Without a coaling station in the Pacific the United States would be weak in a war with Asiatic powers. Her battleships would use up all the coal they could carry in order to cross the ocean, and since the warships of a nation at war are not allowed to

take on coal at neutral ports, they would be compelled to lie at anchor, inactive, till the close of the war.

696. "Open Door" with China—The Boxer Uprising. In 1900 the United States, through Secretary Hay, secured the so-called "open door" for our trade with China, by which the leading European powers and Japan agreed to grant free trade to all the world in the Chinese ports under their control. The Chinese Empire (a republic since 1912) had for centuries excluded from its domain all foreign influence and commercial relations. The leading nations of Europe, notwithstanding, secured from China, under one or another pretext, portions of her territory, and it was not improbable that the Chinese Empire would finally be partitioned among contending powers, which could at will place heavy duties on all goods entering the ports of China under their control. This would have meant the shutting out of American goods from Chinese ports.

The aggression of the western nations, under the lead of Germany, whose purpose was to seize and partition the coast line of China, aroused a feeling of deep resentment among the Chinese. The growing feeling of the Chinese that they had no rights that foreign nations felt bound to respect resulted in the Boxer uprising (1900), which horrified the whole civilized world. The foreign legations in Peking were besieged, and the Chancellor of the Japanese embassy and Baron von Kettler, the German minister, were slain. Thousands of Christians were massacred. Cathedrals, churches, Chinese palaces, libraries, and temples in different parts of the city were reduced to ashes. The entire foreign quarter had to trust for its defense to eighteen officers and three hundred and eighty-nine men of eight nationalities, re-enforced by a number of volunteers and native Christians. In brief, the legations, stormed by the fury of the Boxers, faced inevitable destruction unless speedily relieved. Troops sent to the scene by Great Britain, France, Russia, the United States, and Japan, numbering, all told, twelve thousand men, formed themselves into an army

of relief, with Count von Waldersee, of the German detachment, as commander. After ten days of heavy fighting, the international army stormed Tientsin, and, fighting its way to Peking, relieved the legations and the Catholic Cathedral, in which between two and three thousand persons—priests, nuns, and fugitive Christians—had taken refuge. The Empress Dowager and the court fled from the capital, which was left in ruins. After long and complicated negotiations, difficulties with China were finally adjusted at Peking (1901) by a protocol signed by the representatives of ten foreign powers. The continuation of the “open door” with China was again assured through the efforts of Secretary Hay (1904).

697. Events at Home. Among the domestic events of McKinley's administration may be noted:

- (a) the consolidation (1897) of the cities of New York and Brooklyn and several other towns and districts of Long Island and Staten Island into a so-called Greater New York;
- (b) the dedication (1897) of Grant's tomb at Riverside Park on the Hudson in New York, on the seventy-fifth anniversary of Grant's birthday;
- (c) the discovery (1897) of the wonderfully rich deposits of gold on the Yukon-Klondike rivers by George McCornick, who had gone to Alaska for the purpose of salmon fishing;
- (d) the opening (1897) of the magnificent Congressional Library at Washington, facing the United States Capitol. It is a large, massive, granite edifice, ranking among the finest buildings of its kind in the world, and has a capacity of nearly six million volumes;
- (e) the Trans-Mississippi Exposition held at Omaha, Nebraska (June to November, 1898), for the purpose of exhibiting the wonderful resources and the marvelous progress of the states beyond the Mississippi.

698. The Campaign of 1900. As the time for the presidential campaign drew near, it became evident that there would be little opposition to the nomination of the two standard-bearers of the last campaign. The Republicans, in their convention at Philadelphia, unanimously renominated McKinley on a platform declaring for the gold standard, favoring the construction of an isthmian canal by the government, and advocating McKinley's policy of governing our



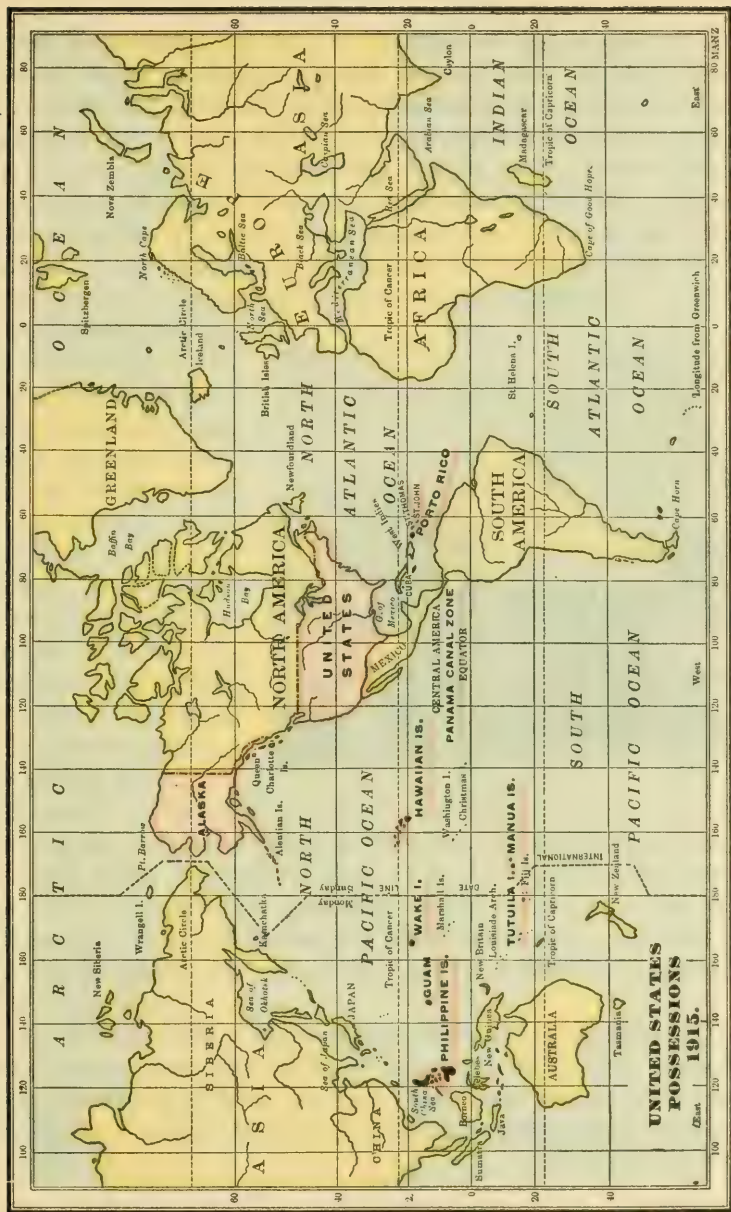
THE CONGRESSIONAL LIBRARY

island possessions and Cuba. The Democrats at their Kansas City convention nominated William J. Bryan with equal unanimity, on a platform firmly supporting the free silver plank of 1896, vigorously opposing McKinley's "imperial" policy, or government of the Philippines by the United States, and demanding that we leave the islands to the rule of their own native legislature, promising legislation against trusts, and favoring the construction of an isthmian canal by government appropriations.

CHAPTER XL

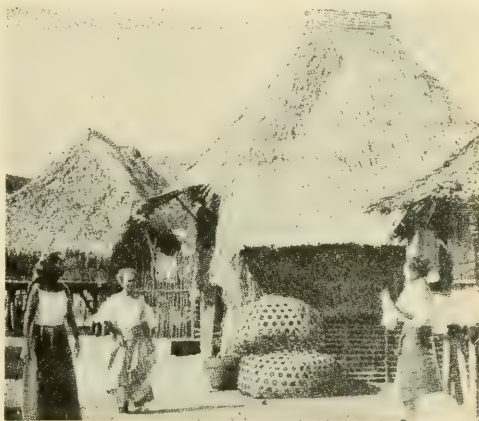
A CENTURY'S PROGRESS

699. Area and Extent. The United States within a century (1800-1900) has grown from a group of sixteen states east of the Mississippi to a recognized "world power." The summer sun never sets upon its whole extent, for a new day dawns upon the forests of Maine before the night sets in on our westernmost islands. When our government began its existence under the Constitution during Washington's administration it had jurisdiction over the present territory east of the Mississippi as far south as latitude 31° —an area of about eight hundred thousand square miles. Texas and California were parts of Spanish Mexico; Florida and the vast Louisiana territory belonged to Spain; and the ownership of Oregon was still in dispute between the United States and England. Since then the present mainland of the United States has been increased by the following accessions: The Louisiana Purchase; Oregon; Florida; Texas; Mexican Territory; and the Gadsden Purchase. Thus the continental area of the United States, excluding Alaska, is now more than three million square miles (3,026,789). When to this continental extent is added the outlying possessions—Alaska, Hawaii, Porto Rico, the Philippine Islands, Tutuila, and the Panama Canal Zone—an area of far more than three million square miles (3,733,364), the total expanse of territory under the jurisdiction of the United States is over six and one-half millions square miles (6,770,153). Since 1800 the number of the states has increased from sixteen to forty-eight. Alaska and Hawaii are our only territories. Our colonial possessions are governed as dependencies.



700. Population. After the Revolution the people of the United States numbered scarcely four million. Most of these were scattered along the eastern seaboard, for but few at this time had made their way across the Appalachian Mountains. At present (census of 1910) the United States proper has a population of nearly ninety-two million (91,972,266). When the population of its outlying possessions is added, the total numbers over one hundred million (101,179,400), of which some twenty-three million (23,301,509) are Catholics.

The center of population of the United States has since 1790 moved westward from about twenty miles east of Baltimore to about fifteen miles southeast of Bloomington, in southern Indiana ($39^{\circ} 4'$ north latitude and $86^{\circ} 19'$ west longitude). Thus we see that the American frontier, that is, the border of the settled and cultivated



A MANILA SCENE

part of the country, which at the beginning of the century extended along the eastern slope of the Alleghanies, had with the flow of immigration gradually moved westward across the Mississippi, the Great Plains, the Rocky Mountains, and even to the Pacific coast. At present the American frontier has practically vanished.

701. Immigration. Our marked increase in population in more recent years would have been impossible but for the great immigration from Europe. For many years after the Revolution immigrants came in small numbers, and not before

1840 did they average one hundred thousand a year. During the following decade, however, owing to the poverty and oppression of the laboring people in Europe, the influx of population assumed very large proportions. After 1870 so great was immigration to the United States that by 1900 the country had added nearly twenty million foreigners to its population. The immigrants settled mainly in New England, in the great cities (especially New York and Chicago), and in the Northwest. Very few settled in the South except in Texas; the negroes as competitive laborers kept them out of what was otherwise a most promising section.

At first these aliens came largely from the British Isles, Germany, and the Scandinavian peninsula. They were intelligent, enterprising, and active in the development of the great agricultural states of the West—in brief, they were a desirable addition to the population. In recent years, however, a less desirable element from southern Europe and eastern Asia (China) has found its way to our shores.

Congress finally amended our immigration laws (1891) by enacting measures which, besides denying Chinese laborers admission to the United States, also refused entrance to convicts, insane persons, paupers, polygamists, anarchists, persons afflicted with contagious diseases, and laborers under contract to perform labor or service in the United States, except such as were engaged in their professions or in the establishment of new industries. It increased the tax imposed upon immigrants from fifty cents to four dollars per head. A superintendent of immigration was appointed, whose duty it was to examine into the character of all immigrants. Foreigners to whom admission was denied under these laws were sent back at the expense of the owners of the vessels which had brought them.

The "Geary Act," passed by Congress (1892), provided that any Chinaman not lawfully entitled to remain in the United States should be returned to his native land and that all Chinese laborers should be obliged to secure certificates of

residence. If they neglected to do this within a year they were to be sent back to China. Means of executing the Act failed, and it was partially repealed in the following year.

As the United States laws confine the privilege of naturalization to persons of the Caucasian and African races, the Chinese, even though they should have all other necessary qualifications, can not become citizens of the United States.



NEW YORK WATERFRONT

702. Cities and Towns. The growth and increase of our cities and towns, keeping pace with the increase of population and the westward expansion of the American frontier, is truly marvelous. In 1800 four per cent of the population of the United States lived in cities, and of these only five contained more than ten thousand inhabitants. The city dwellers at present (census of 1910) number not less than forty-one per cent, or more than two-fifths of the total population. New York, our metropolis, has a population of over four and one-half millions (4,776,883), and among the cities of the world is second only

to London. Chicago, our second largest city, numbers over two million inhabitants (2,185,283) and ranks fifth among the world's cities in population; while our third largest city, Philadelphia, numbers over one and one-half million (1,549,008). Five other cities have a population of between five hundred thousand and one million—Boston (670,585), St. Louis (657,029), Cleveland (560,663), Baltimore (558,485), and Pittsburg (533,905). Detroit, owing chiefly to the automobile industry, has during the last decade advanced from the thirteenth largest city to ninth in rank.

703. Industries. Agriculture, still the chief industry of the United States, has developed in astounding proportions. Farmers are advancing in the knowledge of scientific agriculture, and are increasing the quantity and improving the quality of their products. Gravel roads, railroads, telephones, and rural mail deliveries—all convince the farmer that he has many advantages over the city dweller.

Manufacturing, in its infancy in 1789, has increased in enormous proportions, so that at present we are sending manufactured articles not only to the leading European nations, but also to South America, Africa, and Asia. Our factories give employment to over five million persons and produce billions of dollars' worth of goods each year.

Commerce, so restricted in 1789, has kept pace with the industries of agriculture and manufacturing. Our country has now an extensive import and export trade, and in these respects is today one of the leading nations of the world.

704. Inventions and Discoveries. The progress of industries in the United States gave rise to an unrivaled activity in inventions, especially of labor-saving machinery. In 1791 the patent office at Washington issued its first patent, one for making potash for the manufacture of soap; it has since issued more than seven hundred thousand patents. The inventive genius of the United States, which leads all other nations, has become proverbial.

The more important inventions since 1789 are:

- (a) the cotton gin (Eli Whitney, 1793)
- (b) light from gas (David Melville, 1806)
- (c) the steamboat (Robert Fulton, 1807)
- (d) the reaping machine (Cyrus H. McCormick, 1834)
- (e) method of vulcanizing rubber (Charles Goodyear, 1839)
- (f) the first successful telegraph (Samuel F. B. Morse, 1844)
- (g) the sewing machine (Elias Howe, 1845)
- (h) the first practical typewriter (Charles L. Sholes, 1868)
- (i) the electric street car (Stephen D. Field, 1873)
- (j) the telephone (Alexander G. Bell, 1877)
- (k) the jetty system on the lower Mississippi (Captain J. B. Eads, 1879)
- (l) the inventions of Thomas A. Edison, such as the electric motor, electric light, phonograph, etc.

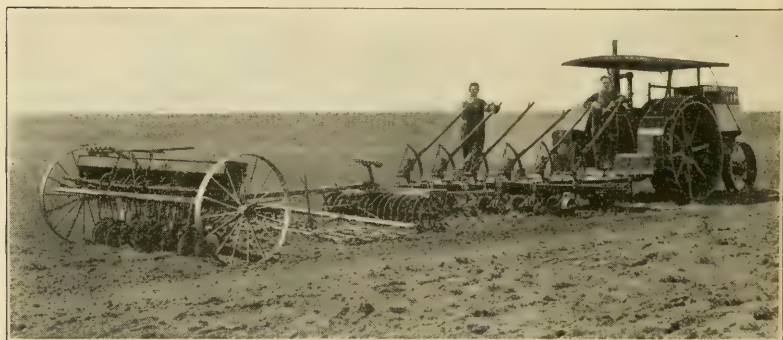
705. Light from Gas. David Melville of Newport, Rhode Island, attracted by developments made along the lines of gas lighting in England, installed in his house and in the streets in front of it (1806), the first gas lights used in the United States. Soon gas lighting took the place of the old-time candle and oil lighting in the houses and streets of cities and larger towns. Gas even supplanted wood and coal as fuel in kitchen stoves.

706. The Sewing Machine. After years of toil and poverty, Elias Howe (1845) succeeded in completing the first sewing machine which has since been perfected by Wheeler, Wilson, Singer, and other inventors. This invention has greatly lightened the burden of woman's toil and lessened the cost of everything that can be sewed.

707. Vulcanization of Rubber. Various attempts had been made to manufacture goods from rubber without any practical results, however, for the heat melted these goods in summer and the cold cracked them in winter. In 1839 Charles Goodyear of New Haven, Connecticut, accidentally discovered a

process by which rubber, mixed with sulphur, subjected to great heat, could be manufactured into waterproof goods, both durable and elastic. Considering the great demand for rubber manufactures, Goodyear's invention may be ranked as one of the most important of the century.

708. The Reaper. The old-time methods of reaping grain by means of the sickle, scythe, or cradle, have been revolutionized by the invention of the McCormick reaper. Crude grain cutters have been superseded by the twine binder harvester and, in some of the large farming districts, by the combined



MODERN FARM MACHINERY

This machine breaks sod, rolls the land, harrows, and sows seed in one operation

harvester and thresher. The last mentioned is a huge machine driven by steam or electricity which makes its way through miles of standing grain and leaves behind it grain threshed, measured, and bagged.

709. The Electric Street Car. The first street cars were drawn by horses, but electricity, which was fast supplanting steam as a locomotive power, converted our horse cars into "trolley cars." These not only convey persons from one part of the city to another, but also connect many of our towns and cities.

710. Illumination and Heating. Various forms of electric lighting have taken the place of the old-time tallow candle, oil lamp, and more recent gas jet. The use of electricity for lighting streets and houses was first put into practice by Thomas A. Edison of Menlo Park, New Jersey (1878), and has since increased with great rapidity.

Open grates and fireplaces, or open Franklin stoves for burning wooden logs or soft coal were long used for warming private houses. After 1835 anthracite stoves came rapidly into use, both for heating and cooking purposes. These were developed into various forms of hot air and steam furnaces. Since 1893 electric radiators have come into use. It appears at present that the age of steam is being fast replaced by the wonder-achieving age of electricity. It seems impossible to set any limit to inventions in connection with this mysterious force.

711. Telegraphy. The telegraph has connected the numerous business interests of this vast country today more closely than those of as small a state as Delaware were connected a century ago. The first cable was laid in the Atlantic by Cyrus W. Field (1866). A final link in the chain of communication uniting the nations of the world was the Pacific cable, completed in 1903. It extends from San Francisco to Hong-Kong by way of Hawaii and Manila. The first message, sent by President Roosevelt, flashed around the world in less than five minutes. The Marconi wireless telegraph by which messages are transmitted through the air was first used in the United States in 1903 when President Roosevelt sent a wireless message from Cape Cod, Massachusetts, across the Atlantic to King Edward VII of England.

The invention of wireless telegraphy cannot be credited to any one mind, although Marconi, an Italian, was the first to perfect the appliance used in space telegraphy and the first to obtain a patent for it. He came to the United States in 1899.

More than one hundred shore stations for sending wireless telegrams have been established in the United States and

nearly two hundred for receiving such are found on our naval vessels. All the great ocean steamships and a large number of the vessels on interior waters are now fitted out with wireless instruments.

712. The Telephone—Phonograph—Kinetoscope. The possibility of the telephone had been discovered by Elisha Gray of Chicago and several others, but no satisfactory results were obtained until 1877, when Alexander Bell put into practical use a telephone line between Salem and Boston, a distance of sixteen miles. The same year, Gray succeeded in setting up a line between Chicago and Milwaukee, a distance of eighty-five miles.

One of the first of the numerous inventions of Thomas A. Edison was the phonograph (1879). This remarkable instrument records and reproduces exactly the human voice or the tones of any musical instrument. After Mr. Edison gave the world the phonograph, he invented (1894) the kinetoscope—an instrument which reproduces movable pictures from photographs.

713. The Typewriter. The typewriter is fast supplanting the pen in the business world. The first practical American typewriting machine was invented by Charles L. Sholes (1868). Since then the instrument has been manufactured on a very large scale.

714. The Automobile. To the French is due the credit for the invention of the automobile, the use of which has, within recent years, increased with astounding rapidity. While the automobile is used chiefly as a pleasurable means of travel, the usefulness of the automobile fire engine, the motor trucks and wagons, and the motor farm implements cannot be overestimated.

715. Aviation. Still more remarkable than the results of wireless telegraphy is the success with which men are navigating the air. The first practical attempt to make an aeroplane was made by the German scientist, Otto Lilienthal (1891). The

invention has since been improved upon by both Europeans and Americans. Foremost among the latter may be mentioned the Wright brothers of Dayton, Ohio.

716. Postal Service. It was considered a great achievement when Benjamin Franklin, Postmaster-General of the Colonies (1754), caused the mail to be delivered three times a week. What would the people of those days have said could they have seen the ten billion pieces of mail matter which at present are carried annually at two cents and less per ounce, over the thousands of miles of railroad and steamboat lines, and delivered from seventy thousand post-offices. Still more would they have wondered at the great postal union which arranges for a letter to be sent at the rate of two cents per ounce to Great Britain and Germany and five cents per ounce to nearly every other country of the world.

717. Our Great Railway System—Standard Time. The development of our great railway system may be classed among the wonders of the world. The twenty-three miles of experimental road of 1827, in the building of which the venerable Charles Carroll turned the first spadeful of earth, have since increased to some eighteen hundred railroad lines, with a total mileage of two hundred thousand, against one hundred and seventy-six thousand miles of the combined countries of Europe. These lines, controlled by groups of capitalists, have been consolidated into several great systems, each of which serves for a particular district. The most important of these groups are the Vanderbilt, Pennsylvania, Harriman, Hill, Morgan, Gould, Moore, and Rockefeller.

In order to secure uniform time over long areas, railroad companies of the United States agreed to make a change of one hour in their time for every fifteen degrees of longitude, giving the same time to all places within each time belt. This is called Standard Time or Railroad Time. By this system the United States is divided into four sections, or time belts. Each belt is fifteen degrees wide, that is, extends seven and

one-half degrees east and seven and one-half west of an adopted meridian. The time of the seventy-fifth meridian is called Eastern Time, that of the ninetieth meridian, Central Time, that of the one hundred and fifth meridian, Mountain Time, and that of the one hundred and twentieth meridian, Pacific Time. The local time of the Central meridian of each belt is made the standard time for the entire belt. The boundaries which represent the places where the railways actually change their time are somewhat irregular, since oftentimes the meridians extend through very unimportant points. Therefore, instead of following the exact boundaries, railways select well known places, as, for instance, Buffalo, Pittsburg, and Atlanta, at which cities the change is made from Eastern to Central time.

718. Corporations and Trusts. Since the Civil War, many smaller business enterprises have merged into combinations called "corporations," or "trusts," which do business on a large scale. These corporations and trusts are often highly efficient, but frequently they are controlled by unscrupulous men, in which instance the following evils result: they monopolize the trade of the country, and control not only the output of the necessities of life but also their prices; they crush out smaller rivals by fixing destructive prices or by other unfair means; they prevent the man of small means from engaging in business for himself to the detriment of general prosperity and contentment of society; they are, to a great extent, the cause of the extremes of wealth and poverty found in large cities. Because of these evils, Federal and State legislation have been directed against them. The Sherman Anti-trust Act (1890) prohibits all combinations that control the output of commodities. By this Act many of the trusts and pools were declared illegal and were dissolved. But in spite of the Sherman Anti-trust Law and the Interstate Commerce Law, the Standard Oil Company, the Live Stock and Dressed Beef Combinations, the Steel Trust, and others have secured immense

advantages over their rivals through discrimination in their favor by railroads. For instance, a favored shipper may pay full rates at the time of shipment, but afterwards receive a rebate of a part of the payment. In many instances the favored shippers are themselves heavy stockholders in the railroads. Many public men believe that the protective tariff also has fostered the growth of trusts. The three chief objects of trusts and corporations are to reduce the expense in the matter of management, to avoid competition between different concerns, and to place themselves in a position to fix the price on their commodities.

719. Reform Movements. Every movement directed to the reformation of the injustice that prevails in the present social and industrial world has three purposes: the bettering of the conditions of the workingman, the curbing of excessive power of capitalism, and the protection of the consumer. These, too, are the objects of Socialism, which at present is striving to gain a widespread influence over the civil and political world.

For the achievement of these worthy purposes, Socialism suggests certain radical changes, chief among which are the following: that all sources and material of production should be owned by the community or collectively by the people as a whole, and that no individual or body of individuals should be allowed to possess, either in whole or in part, any class of productive goods; that all labor should be socially organized and directed by officials of the government, and that everyone should receive from the warehouses or stores of the nation in proportion to the productive value of his labor. This radical program of socialism would strike at the foundations of the republic of Washington, Jefferson, Hamilton, Madison, and others. The individuality of the citizen would be so merged in the life of the whole that personal ambition would be destroyed, and men would be led to sacrifice the most sacred convictions of honor and conscience.

In the last generation there has been a perceptible advance in

the manner of governing certain of our charitable institutions. American schools for the blind and the deaf are among the best in the world; homes for delinquent children have become effective schools of mental and moral training instead of, as formerly, reformatory prisons; homes for orphan children may be found all over the country. Especially in those under Catholic supervision children receive a careful bringing up and are well fitted for some work by which they may later earn their livings; nearly every large city has a hospital conducted under the most healthful and sanitary conditions, in which the poor may receive, free of charge, medical treatment of the most advanced character.

720. Social Rank. In the progress of our historical researches we may have noted that the lines of social rank so distinctly drawn during colonial times have disappeared. Instead we find distinct lines drawn between the capitalist and the laborer.

Still, it seems clear that the masses of the people live wholesome lives, and that the principles and conscience of Americans will not tolerate abuses when once these abuses are exposed to view.

721. The Negro. The negroes who at the middle of the century were still in bondage have since progressed in their sphere of freedom. Many of them are taking advantage of the educational facilities afforded them, and some remarkable individuals, as Booker T. Washington and Frederick Douglass, prove that the race is capable of great development.

Booker T. Washington, born a slave in Virginia, acquired, by dint of his own ambition and much hardship, an education at Hampton Institute. While an instructor in that school, he was employed by the state of Alabama to organize a normal school for colored people at Tuskegee. He opened the school in an old church and a shanty with an enrollment of thirty pupils. The school has since prospered greatly. Its object is to give the negroes a practical education along lines of trade and industry. Booker T. Washington has become

noted for his ability as a public speaker and as the author of a number of valuable publications.

Frederick Douglass, reared as a slave on a Maryland plantation, escaped to the North at the age of twenty-one and there gained reputation as a powerful public speaker in behalf of the anti-slavery cause. He also gained fame as an orator in England. For many years he edited an anti-slavery paper in New York and after the Civil War took active part in national politics.

The negro, naturally of a religious nature, is wholesomely influenced by the Catholic faith, so that observing men and judges of courts have praised the law-abiding spirit existing in Catholic colored communities. The negroes of the United States naturally adopted, as slaves, the religion of their former owners, who were mainly Baptists and Methodists. Hence, Catholic negroes are few and live chiefly in those states originally settled by Catholics, as Maryland and Louisiana. The total number of colored Catholics is only about two hundred thousand.

722. Elementary Education. The United States, realizing that all its material advantages would be worth little without a moral and intelligent people to make a proper use of them, has been among the foremost countries of the world in educating its citizens. The American public schools, organized by the first generation of settlers in New Netherland and New England, as also the private Catholic schools founded by the Maryland settlers have many times multiplied in number and improved in quality and extent of instruction. Thus the means of an elementary education have been placed within convenient reach of every child.

723. Catholic Elementary Education. The public school system as now constructed, though admirable in many respects, cannot satisfy the Catholic idea of education. The Catholic Church recognizes that religion must be the supreme principle in education, as it is in life. If, therefore, the so-

called secular branches of knowledge are taught without references to religion, as is the case in our public schools, she feels that the "one thing necessary" (Luke 10:42), the most important of the educational branches, is being omitted in the training of the child. Hence, she tries to supply this defect by establishing schools under her own control, the so-called Catholic, or parochial schools, in which all the branches of the public schools are taught, and, in addition, religion and religious morality.

According to the "Catholic Directory" of 1914, the total number of parish schools in the United States is over five thousand (5,403), with an attendance of over one million (1,429,859). This number of pupils is divided among some thirty-one thousand teachers, fully nine-tenths of whom are Religious. These religious teachers belong to about two hundred and seventy-five distinct teaching bodies, including teaching brotherhoods.

Catholic schools, as a rule, are entirely supported by the voluntary contributions of the Catholics. For a length of time after the Revolution, they, as well as the schools of other denominations, were assisted by public funds. State after state, however, eventually passed laws forbidding the payment of public funds toward denominational schools. Whereupon many Catholics, with the coöperation of their fair-minded non-Catholic fellow citizens, put into practice several plans. Among these may be mentioned the Poughkeepsie plan of Poughkeepsie, New York (1873). Under this scheme the school board rented the Catholic school buildings and accepted the two Catholic schools of the place as public schools under the common regulation framed for the public schools. The Catholic teachers, who were nuns continued as before and received their salaries from the public fund. The arrangement was, however, discontinued (1899). The "Faribault plan" was a similar arrangement effected by Archbishop Ireland with the school boards of Faribault and Stillwater, in Minnesota (1891). Many

Catholics opposed the plan on the ground that religious instruction under the agreement had to be given outside the regular school hours. An appeal was made to Rome which permitted the continuance of the arrangement, but the controversy existing between the Catholics attracted attention and aroused slumbering anti-Catholic prejudices.

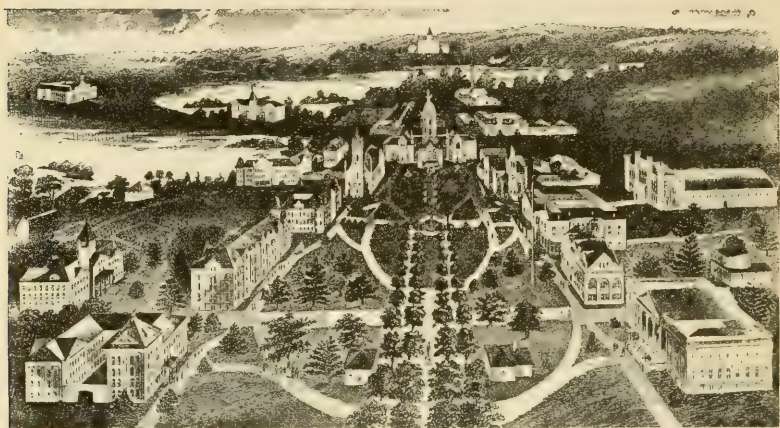
724. Catholic Negro and Indian Schools. One hundred and nineteen Catholic schools accommodate eleven thousand Catholic negro children of the United States. The number of Catholic Indians in the United States is about one hundred thousand. Among these are established sixty-three Catholic schools, with an attendance of nearly five thousand Indian pupils. About six thousand Catholic Indian pupils are educated in the government schools.

Under the so-called "Peace Policy" inaugurated by President Grant (1870), about eighty thousand Catholic Indians passed from Catholic to Protestant control. Some years later the Bureau of Catholic Indian Missions inaugurated by the government, provided for the support of Catholic Indian Schools. The appropriations of the Bureau were discontinued (1900), but many of the schools were kept up by the contributions of charitable societies and by donations. Since President Roosevelt's administration a considerable allowance has again been made to certain Catholic schools by the government through the Catholic Indian Bureau. This allowance is taken from the funds of the tribes who send their children to these schools. Prominent among the agencies that have successfully labored in behalf of Catholic Indian education has been the community of Sisters of the Blessed Sacrament for Indians and Colored People, which was founded by Mother Catharine Drexel (1889).

725. Catholic Higher Educational Institutions. The founding of Catholic institutions for higher learning kept pace with the progress of religious toleration. Many Catholic secondary or high schools, colleges, and universities, have been opened

to the Catholic student without cost to the state. In 1789 there was but one Catholic educational institution in the land. Today according to the "Catholic Directory" of 1914 there are in the country eighty-two ecclesiastical seminaries with an attendance of over seven thousand students, two hundred and thirty colleges for boys, and six hundred and eighty academies for girls.

The total number of pupils in Catholic educational institutions of all kinds is over one and one-half million (1,669,391).



NOTRE DAME UNIVERSITY

Among the noted Catholic institutions of higher learning may be mentioned: Georgetown University, District of Columbia (1787), in charge of the Jesuits; Notre Dame University, South Bend, Indiana (1842), in charge of the Fathers of the Holy Cross; Creighton University, Omaha, Nebraska (1879), in charge of the Jesuits; and the Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C. (1889).

In 1912, hundreds of Georgetown's sons from all parts of the Union gathered around their "Alma Mater" on the occasion of the unveiling of the statue of John Carroll, S. J., the

first Archbishop of Baltimore. The statue is a gift of the University Alumni Association, and represents Father Carroll in his Jesuit habit, sitting in an attitude of deep thought, as if marveling at the present growth of the little college he founded over one hundred years ago. Chief Justice White, Georgetown's most distinguished son, in words as earnest as they were well chosen, presented the University with the statue of its founder.

The Catholic University of America was established by the American bishops through the liberality of Miss Mary Caldwell. It is managed by officers under rules laid down by a board of trustees composed of bishops, priests, and laymen. The president of the board is the Chancellor of the University, and this office is held by the Archbishop of Baltimore.

726. State Institutions of Higher Learning. Particularly notable is the rapid increase in the institutions of higher learning. Agricultural colleges supported by appropriations of Congress have been opened in many of the states.

Horace Mann established in Massachusetts (1840) the first Normal School in the United States. The success of his work stimulated other states to establish similar schools for the training and education of teachers. Normal schools were founded in almost all the free states before 1860, and at present scarcely a state can be found which does not contain more than one school for this purpose. Meantime, many of the states gradually built up institutions of higher learning, both professional and scientific.

Among the colleges and universities of colonial fame may be mentioned: Harvard University of Cambridge, Massachusetts (1636); William and Mary College of Williamsburg, Virginia (1693); Yale University of New Haven, Connecticut (1701); Princeton University of Princeton, New Jersey (1746); Columbia University of New York (1754); the University of Pennsylvania, founded by Franklin in Philadelphia (1755); Brown University of Providence, Rhode Island (1764), and Dart-

mouth College of Hanover, New Hampshire (1769). Among the foremost colleges founded since the Revolution may be mentioned: the University of Virginia, founded by Jefferson in 1819; the University of Michigan, organized in 1842; the University of Wisconsin, in 1850; Washington University at St. Louis, in 1857; Cornell University in New York, in 1868; Johns Hopkins at Baltimore, in 1876. The Troy Female Seminary, New York (1821), now called the Emma Willard School in honor of its founder, was the first public institution for the higher education of women. Not until within the last fifty years were the higher schools open to women. Since then many colleges have been founded exclusively for their education.

727. Education After School Days. For the encouragement of study after school days, literary and scientific organizations have been formed, prominent among which are those held on the shores of Lake Chautauqua in western New York. University extension courses, lecture lyceums, and literary clubs are also doing very valuable educational work. The Catholic Educational Association, composed of Catholic educators and other persons interested in Catholic education in the United States, holds each year a convention in some one of the larger cities. These conventions are attended by hundreds of members of the clergy, the brotherhoods, and the sisterhoods. The object of the association and its conventions is to promote by study, conference, and discussion, the thoroughness of Catholic educational work, and to help the cause of Catholic education by the publication and circulation of such literary matter as shall further these ends.

728. Medicine—Pure Food Law. Great progress has also been made in medical science, particularly surgery. The use of anæsthetics in painful operations was begun in 1844 by Horace Wells of Hartford, who used nitrous oxide. A few years later Charles Jackson and William Morton of Boston introduced the use of sulphuric ether.

Stringent food laws, forbidding the use of adulterants in foods and medicines, and requiring the labels on all such commodities to state exactly what the same contain, were passed in 1906.

729. American Fine Arts. The material development and progress of the country so engrossed the attention and energies of the American people that for a long time but little progress was made in the fine arts. Since the middle of the nineteenth century, however, there has been a marked change, and though the nation must still find its models in artistic achievements in the masters of other lands, it has, nevertheless, produced painters and sculptors who have attracted attention in the world of art, while many of our large cities are fast becoming interesting art centers.

730. The Art of Music. In music the United States has made only a beginning. It must still look for its models to the old masters of Europe, for, strictly speaking, its musical productions show no national characteristic, but rather bear the impress of foreign music, particularly the German, French, and Italian. The nation has, notwithstanding, brought forth a school of orchestral writers of high attainment, and a number of our great American composers have written very creditable works. Foremost among American composers may be mentioned: John Knowles Paine (1839-1908), a native of Maine, who is our earliest composer in large instrumental forms; Edward A. McDowell (1861-1908) of New York, a wide-famed pianist and composer; and George W. Chadwick (1854-) of Massachusetts, who has also won distinction as a composer. Other American composers of note are James Dunn Parker, George E. Whiting (a Catholic), Dudley Buck, William H. Gilchrist, Horatio Parker, William Mason, and Mrs. H. H. A. Beach.

731. Our National Hymn—Songs—Poems. The Star Spangled Banner is the national ensign of the United States, and a song bearing the same title and composed by Francis Scott

Key is the national anthem. Other patriotic songs are "Hail Columbia" by Joseph Hopkinson, and "America" by Samuel Francis Smith.

Among our earlier songs and poems of note may be mentioned: "Columbia," by Timothy Dwight; "Marching Through Georgia," by Henry Clay Work; "Battle Hymn of the Republic," by Julia Ward Howe; "The Red, White, and Blue," by David T. Shaw; "When Johnnie Comes Marching Home," by Patrick Sarsfield Gillmore; "Dixie," by Albert Pike; "Maryland, My Maryland," by James Ryder Randall; "Tramp, Tramp, Tramp," and "The Battlecry of Freedom," by George F. Root; "Old Ironsides," by Oliver Wendell Holmes; "The Old Oaken Bucket," by Samuel Woodworth; "Woodman, Spare That Tree," by George Pope Morris; "Concord Hymn," by Ralph Waldo Emerson; "The Blue and the Gray," by Francis Miles Finch; "Sheridan's Ride," by James Buchanan Read. The song, "Home, Sweet Home," though containing only twelve lines, is known all over the English speaking world. It was written by John Howard Payne of New York.

732. Musical Societies. A very early musical organization, the Stoughton Musical Society, which is still in existence, grew out of a singing school founded by William Billings of Boston. The Handel and Haydn Society, the most famous body for musical development, was organized in Boston (1815). The object of both societies, as well as of many less important organizations of their kind, was to foster and spread love and taste for choral music. In the achievement of this object the Handel and Haydn Society deserves to be mentioned as the most successful. Out of a friendly visit paid by the Cincinnati Liedertafel to the Louisville Liederkrantz (1848) grew the North American Saengerbund, which is characterized by its great festivals, the first of which was held in Cincinnati, June, 1849.

733. Musical Instruments. Musical instruments of the spinet and virginal type, as well as the flute and the violin, could be

found in the homes of the large eastern cities in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Church organs, the harpsichord and the piano followed in due course of time. Jonas Chickering was the first piano manufacturer in the United States (1819).

734. The Orchestra. Within the last twenty years great advance has been made in orchestral composition. The Philharmonic Orchestra of New York, organized in 1842, was the first, and is still one of the most famous. The Boston Symphony Orchestra (1861) is probably equal to any in the world. The Chicago Symphony Orchestra, founded by Theodore Thomas (1890), also deserves special mention. Almost every large city of the United States is now becoming active in the orchestral field.

735. Motu Proprio of Pope Pius X. The first and most urgent condition which the Catholic Church imposes in regard to her music is that it be in conformity with the place, time, and purpose of Divine worship; that it be sacred, not theatrical. Accordingly, Pope Pius X issued on November 2, 1903, instruction on sacred music in churches and at the same time ordered the authentic Gregorian chant to be used everywhere. He also caused choir books to be printed under the supervision of a special commission. Thus was occasioned the beginning of a reform in church music, which, however, is not yet universal. Since parochial schools must do the preparatory work and lay the foundation for good church singing, the Holy Father's decree has occasioned new efforts and activity toward the systematic study of vocal music in these schools.

736. Architecture. The architecture of the United States prior to the Revolution was generally English in its origin, except in the regions which were essentially Spanish in their settlement and development. Examples of Spanish architecture are the Cathedral of St. Augustine, the fort now called Marion, in Florida, and the buildings of the Spanish missions, to each of which, as a rule, a church is attached. Traces of

French influences are apparent in New Orleans, especially in the Ursuline convent, now the Archbishop's palace. Dutch and Swedish influence is apparent in such structures as the Van Cortlandt Manor on the Hudson, built in 1681. The early Constitutional period is noted for the erection of many monumental buildings, such as the old Capitol at Washington and the State House at Boston. Toward the middle of the nineteenth century (1815-1876), architecture, save in the building



THE WHITE HOUSE AT WASHINGTON

of churches, declined. During the last quarter of a century, however, interest in it was revived by architects of foreign training like Richard M. Hunt and Henry H. Richardson. The present tendency in the United States is toward the French renaissance for residences and hotels, and the Gothic and Romanesque for churches. Strictly speaking, America has no distinctly national architecture except in the colossal office

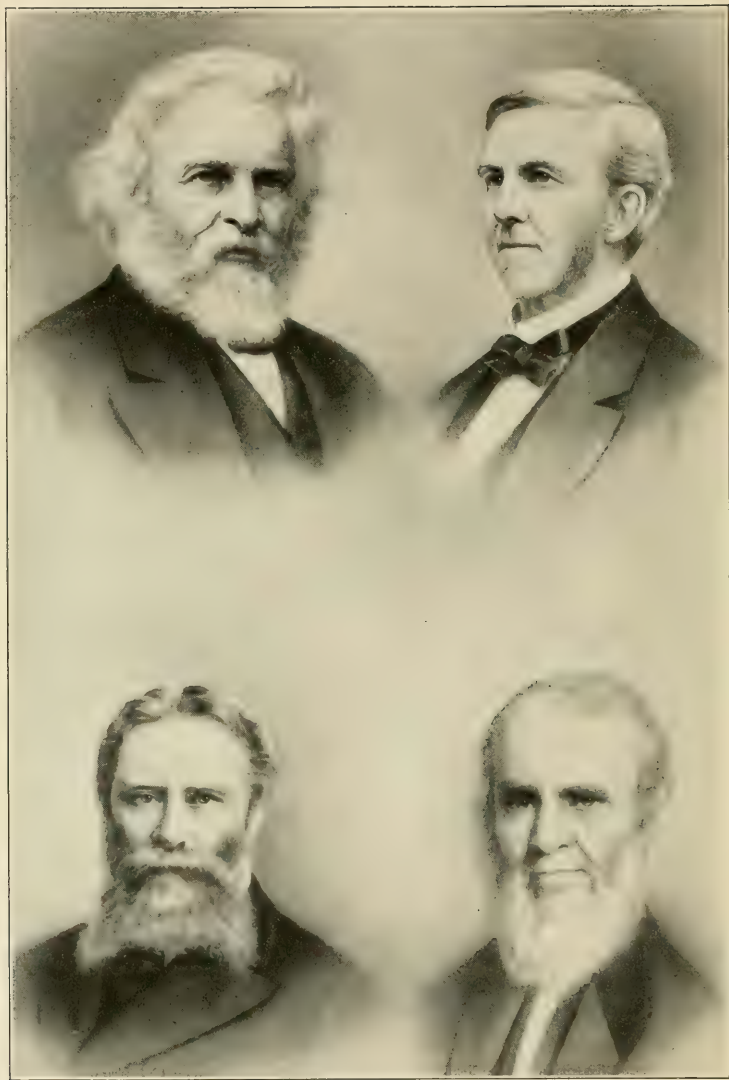
buildings of the great cities. These towering "skyscrapers," steel skeletons encased in a shell of masonry, are of late assuming more architectural elegance and dignity.

737. Painting. The first Americans to win distinction as painters were Copley, Stuart, and West. American art remained under British influence until long after the Revolution and American artists spent the greater part of their lives in Europe. In the nineteenth century, however (1825), American painting assumed a more national tone under the influence of such artists as Thomas Cole, one of the foremost landscape painters of the Rocky Mountain scenery, and Bierstadt, Hill, Hubbard, and Moran. The centennial exposition (1876) at Philadelphia occasioned a great revival in American art, and an appreciation of foreign artists, particularly the French. Though the American artists have drawn vigor and inspiration from European art, they, nevertheless, have developed originality in subjects and motives. Two of the greatest American artists are James McNeill Whistler and John S. Sargent. Other notable painters of the same generation are Winslow Homer, Eastman Johnson, John La Farge, and Edwin A. Abbey. American landscape has become the most distinctly national feature of American art. Foremost in this school is George Inness; others well known are A. H. Wyant and Homer Martin. Among the artists who have become famous in recent years are Chase, Blum, Dewing, Thayer, Brush, Beckwith, Blashfield, Bruce, Benson, Tarbell, Vedder, Pearce, Cox, and Walker.

738. Sculpture. The art of sculpture in the United States is yet young, being a development of only the last three quarters of the nineteenth century. Still it early assumed a distinctly national character. The Colonial and Revolutionary periods afforded no facilities for training in art, no monuments for study or inspiration. The real development of American sculpture began with the productions of Horatio Greenough of Boston, one of whose most famous works was the half draped statue of Washington which long stood before the

national Capitol. Hiram Powers (1805-1873) did work similar to Greenough. Thomas Crawford (1813-1857), a pupil of Thorwaldsen, is known as the designer of the bronze "Liberty" surmounting the dome of the Capitol at Washington. Other sculptors of the same period are F. Ball and L. G. Meade. Henry Kirk Brown (1814-1886) was the first whose productions, unaffected by his Italian study, bore a distinct national character. This is typified in his remarkable equestrian statue of George Washington in Union Square, New York. Another sculptor, noted for his native tendencies, was Erastus Dow Palmer (1817-1904), who was practically self-trained and never left America. His "Angels of the Sepulcher" shows the artist's strength in religious subjects. The most prominent figure thus far among American sculptors is Augustus Saint-Gaudens (1848-1907). The brilliant creations of this artist are equal to those of renowned European sculptors. His Shaw memorial relief at Boston and the statue of Lincoln at Chicago are remarkable works of art, and his "General Sherman" in Central Park, New York, places him in the first rank of American sculptors. The most important sculptors of animal life are the late Edward Kemys, E. C. Potter, and A. C. Proctor. The latter has also portrayed the American Indian, but the most powerful sculptor of the Indian is Cyrus E. Dallin. The two most characteristically American of the younger artists, both from the West, are Solon H. Borglum, whose subjects are the Indian, the cowboy, and the broncho, and George Barnard. New York City is the center of American sculpture.

739. American Literature. After the Revolution, American literature was still in its infancy. The period beginning with Jackson's administration not only ushered in a new era in government, industry, and national spirit, but also the "Golden Age" in American literature. The stirring events which followed the framing of the Constitution, as well as the rapid progress of the country, naturally found expressions in the songs and stories of our writers.



HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW
JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL

OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES
JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER

740. American Authors. Washington Irving (1783-1859), New York, the "Father of American Literature," was the first author to attract attention abroad. He is noted for his famous *Knickerbocker History of New York*, the interesting stories of the *Sketch Book*, and his *Life of Christopher Columbus*. Irving and James Fenimore Cooper (1789-1851), New York, were the first distinguished authors to choose American subjects for their writings. The latter, our first novelist, wrote *The Spy* and many other novels, some of which are based upon the history of our country.

William Cullen Bryant (1794-1878), Massachusetts, the "Poet of Nature," sometimes called the American Wordsworth (England's poet of Nature), came into fame by his well-known poem "Thanatopsis," written when he was only nineteen. He also wrote many other poems, among which "To a Waterfowl" is especially worthy of note. He is associated with the "Knickerbocker School," a group of writers who, during the first quarter of the nineteenth century, made New York the literary center of our country. Some of his poems betray anti-Catholic prejudices, which arose, no doubt, from his erroneous beliefs concerning Catholic faith and practices.

Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803-1882), Massachusetts, the "Sage of Concord," became known by his essays as one of the great masters of English prose. From the standpoint of Catholicity, however, some of his ideas are obscure and unsound. He was color-blind, as it were, to the spiritual and supernatural.

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1807-1882), Maine, our most loved poet, wrote even before his graduation from college a number of poems, among which may be mentioned the "Hymn of the Moravian Nuns." Some of his most famous longer poems are "Evangeline," the Indian tale "Hiawatha," and the Puritan narrative "The Courtship of Miles Standish." Among the best known of his short poems are "Psalm of Life," "Excelsior," and "The Village Blacksmith."

John Greenleaf Whittier (1807-1892), Massachusetts, the "Quaker Poet," and the most thoroughly American of all our poets, is, next to Longfellow, our most popular verse writer. By his anti-slavery writing he became the sturdy poet champion of human liberty. Among his best known works are "The Barefoot Boy," "Snow-Bound," "Maud Muller," and "Barbara Frietchie." In some of his poems, Whittier, like Bryant, exhibits evidences of anti-Catholic prejudices.

James Russell Lowell (1819-1891), Massachusetts, is noted as a poet, essayist, and critic. Among his writings may be mentioned "Indian Summer Reverie," "To the Dandelion," "The Vision of Sir Launfal," and the "Biglow Papers." Because some of his writings are profound, and require much thought on the part of the reader, Lowell, with all his genius, is a less popular poet than Longfellow.

Edgar Allan Poe (1809-1849), Massachusetts, the most imaginative of American writers, is best known as a poet by "The Raven," "The Bells," "The Haunted Palace," and "Annabel Lee." He is the originator of our modern short story, and his works have acquired great popularity in France and England. Prominent among his short stories may be mentioned "The Fall of the House of Usher" and "The Gold-Bug."

Oliver Wendell Holmes (1809-1894), Massachusetts, one of our most brilliant humorists, is distinguished both in prose and poetry. Like Longfellow, he wrote verses successfully even before he finished his college course. His stirring poem "Old Ironsides" saved from wreckage the *Constitution*. The work, however, which won him most fame was *The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table*, which consists of a series of essays at once philosophical, imaginative, and amusing.

Nathaniel Hawthorne (1804-1864), Massachusetts, the greatest of American romancers, or story-writers, is the author of *Twice Told Tales*, *The Scarlet Letter*, *The House of the Seven Gables*, *Grandfather's Chair*, etc.

Lew Wallace (1827-1905), Indiana, is noted as the author of

Ben Hur, a Tale of the Christ, one of the most popular novels written during the last quarter of the century. He also wrote *The Prince of India* and *The Fair God*. He, like some other American authors, has marred his works by anti-Catholic bigotry.

Orestes A. Brownson (1803-1876), Vermont, an able American reviewer and philosopher, devoted his pen with heroic energy to the cause of the Catholic Church, to which he became a convert in 1844. His principal productions are *The American Republic* and *The Convert*. In the latter work he relates his religious wanderings in succession as a Congregationalist, a Presbyterian, a Universalist, a Rationalist, and a Socialist, until he found satisfaction in the solution of his doubts and solace for his troubles in the bosom of the Catholic Church.

Archbishop Hughes (1797-1864), New York, is known not only as a most valiant defender of the Catholic Church when it was struggling for a footing in a rather hostile community, but also as the champion of the "school question." His lectures, sermons, and pamphlets on historic and doctrinal subjects, usually hastily done, as occasion required, commanded general attention from friend and opponent.

Reverend Abram J. Ryan (1839-1886), Virginia, the "Poet-Priest of the South"—Catholic chaplain in the Confederate army during the Civil War—is famed for many beautiful poems, which are excellent in merit, characterized by subtle harmony and strange sweetness and full of fervent feelings of the southerner and pious priestly aspirations. Among the most popular of his verses are "The Conquered Banner," "Erin's Flag," and "The Sword of Robert Lee."

Brother Azarias (1847-1893), New York, was a member of the Christian Brothers. He is remarkable for the depth and soundness of his thinking and for the beauty, ease, and clearness of his style. Among his writings may be mentioned "Development of English Thought," "Aristotle and the Christian Church," "Books and Reading," "Philosophy of Literature."

Alice Cary (1820-1871) and her sister, Phoebe Cary (1824-1871), Ohio, are the best women poets America has produced. Their poems are thoughtful, graceful, and replete with religious feeling. Among their best verses are "Poems of Faith, Hope, and Charity," "Pictures from Memory," "Order for a Picture."

Harriet Beecher Stowe (1812-1896), Connecticut, gained renown by her anti-slavery novel entitled *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. Her overdrawn pictures did much to influence the North against the South.

Anna Hanson Dorsey (1815-1896), District of Columbia, was one of the pioneers of Catholic fiction in the United States. Among her principal works are *Palms, Oriental Pearls, May Brooke, Warp and Woof*.

Mary A. Sadlier (1820-1903), Ireland, a Catholic, and an indefatigable writer, is best known by her novels, *The Blakes and Flannigans* (dealing with the school question), *Confederate Chieftains*, *Bessie Conway*, and *Aunt Honor's Keepsake*. Her stories and translations number more than sixty volumes.

Helen Hunt Jackson (1831-1885), Massachusetts, known by her pen name "H. H.," has by her story, *Ramona*, left a prominent name in American literature. In this artistic composition, perhaps the best novel produced by an American woman, the pictures of the mission district of California are so vividly drawn that the story attracts many visitors to the country.

Louisa M. Alcott (1832-1888), Pennsylvania, a most popular writer of her day, won fame as the author of *Little Men, Little Women, An Old-Fashioned Girl*, and many other stories for young people.

741. Our Familiar Historians. William H. Prescott (1797-1859), Massachusetts, is well known as the author of *Ferdinand and Isabella, Conquest of Mexico, Conquest of Peru*. Religious prejudices, however, greatly mar the reliability of his otherwise excellent works.

George Bancroft (1800-1891), Massachusetts, has left a great work in a *History of the United States in Twelve Volumes*, the

first volume of which appeared in 1834. It covers the Colonial and Revolutionary periods. As a literary production, it ranks high, but from a religious point of view it is objectionable, owing to the expression of bigotry against the Catholic religion, and the covert inculcation of the pernicious theory of Pantheism.

Most Reverend Martin John Spalding (1810-1872), Kentucky, the seventh Archbishop of Baltimore, is famous for *Sketches of the Early Catholic Missions of Kentucky*, *History of the Protestant Reformation in all Countries*, and *Miscellanea*. *Miscellanea* won great popularity and ran into many editions.

John L. Motley (1814-1877), Massachusetts, is best known for his classic *History of the Rise of the Dutch Republic*, which he completed after ten years of labor.

Francis Parkman (1823-1893), Massachusetts, is the author of *The Conspiracy of Pontiac*, *The Pioneers of France in the New World*, *The Jesuits in North America*, and *La Salle, or the Discovery of the Great West*. For the facts of the Jesuit missions, Parkman is entirely reliable; but as a Catholic critic has well remarked, "Of the motives which governed the missionaries, of their faith and charity, as well as of their whole interior spiritual life, he understands less than did the untutored Indian."

John Gilmary Shea (1824-1892), New York, was a Catholic whose world-wide fame as a scholar and historian is based on his *Discovery and Exploration of the Mississippi Valley*, *The History of the Catholic Missions among the Indian Tribes of the United States*, and *The History of the Catholic Church in the United States*.

742. Our Present Literary Era. Although the number of American writers is far greater at the present era than at any time in the past, the standard of excellence is not as high as in the days of Longfellow, Emerson, and Lowell. Among the prominent literary men and women of the present day may be mentioned the following:

Cardinal Gibbons (1834-), Baltimore, Maryland, is the dis-

tinguished writer of *Faith of Our Fathers*, *Our Christian Heritage*, and *The Ambassadors of Christ*—works which are rich contributions to American letters and which have won a wide circulation.

The Right Reverend James L. Spalding (1840-), Peoria, Illinois, has given us productions of a master mind and of a ripe and broad scholarship in essays published under the titles of *Education and the Higher Life*, *Things of the Mind*, *Means and Ends of Education*, *Thoughts and Theories of Life and Education*.

Father John B. Tabb (1845-1909), Virginia, another poet-priest, is noted for his singularly artistic and refined poetical works. Some of his volumes are "Poems," "An Octave to Mary," and "Poems Grave and Gay."

Father Francis Finn, S.J. (1859-), St. Louis, Missouri, is the author of numerous wholesome works of literature for young people. Among the most popular tales are *Percy Wynn*, *Tom Playfair*, *Mostly Boys*, and *The Football Game*.

Edmund Clarence Stedman (1833-1908), Connecticut, one of the best known and most highly esteemed of our present authors, wrote *Fort Sumter*, *Wanted—A Man*, *The Doorstep*, *At Twilight*, and *Alice of Monmouth*.

Eleanor Cecilia Donnelly (1840-), Pennsylvania, a Catholic, is the author of many volumes of verse, including the poems "Crowned Stars," "Hymn of the Sacred Heart," "Children of the Golden Sheaf." One of her chief prose works is the *Life of Father Felix*. In the spirit and method of her work she is compared with Adelaide Procter.

Maurice Francis Egan (1852-), Pennsylvania, a Catholic author of exquisite taste, has written much and on a variety of subjects. As a novelist he will be remembered for *The Disappearance of John Longworthy*, *Success of Patrick Desmond*, *The Vocation of Edward Conway*, and *A Marriage of Reason*. He wrote also juvenile stories, among which *Jack Chumleigh* is noted for fun and frolic. As a poet, Doctor Egan ranks high in

American literature. Two volumes of verse published by him are *Preludes* and *Songs and Sonnets*.

Francis Marion Crawford (1854-1909), holds the first place in the American school of romantic novelists. Among his stories may be mentioned *A Roman Singer*, *Dr. Claudius*, and *Marzio's Crucifix*. He spent the greater part of his life in Rome, and his strongest subjects were Italian life and scenery.

Other American writers of the present era are: Thomas Bailey Aldrich (1836-), New Hampshire; Charles W. Stoddard (1843-), New York; James Jeffrey Roche (1847-), Ireland; Father John Talbot Smith (1855-), New York, and many others whom limited space does not permit us to mention.

Though the standard of excellence in American literary productions is not so high at present as in the "Golden Age" of Jackson's administration, the writers of history have been fairly successful in maintaining the standard set by Parkman, Bancroft, Motley, and Shea. Among historians of note may be mentioned Rev. A. Guggenberger, S. J. (1841-1906); Charles F. Lummis (1850-), Massachusetts; James Schouler (1839-), Massachusetts; John B. McMaster (1852-), New York; Henry Adams (1858-), Massachusetts; and James Ford Rhodes (1848-), Ohio.

743. Catholicity. Religious liberty is, perhaps, less restricted in the United States than in any other country on the globe. Under the Constitution, every man may believe and preach what he will, so long as his doctrines and practice are not contrary to public morals and do not infringe upon the rights of others. If it is true that the Constitution is in harmony with the Catholic religion, it is also true that no religion in the United States is more in accord with it than is the Catholic. While the State is independent of the Church, this external separation in their different spheres does not hinder them from meeting on the fundamental religious principle, that God is the source of all government and all authority.

In the United States, the Catholic Church, whose children

were the first in discovery, first in the establishment of Christianity, first in the organization of civil government, first in proclaiming religious toleration, and first and unanimous in the support of Washington, has left monuments and memorials of her passage from the Canadian borders to the southernmost coast of Florida, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific. These monuments and memorials may be traced in the numerous churches, religious houses, and institutions of piety, charity, and learning, as also in the names of cities, mountains, rivers, and bays. The marvelous growth of the Church in numbers, achievements, and popularity, today engages the attention of the world. After the Revolution, Bishop Carroll, the sole bishop, with thirty or forty priests ministered to a flock of about fifty thousand souls, all scattered over a vast area, in which there were no schools, colleges, hospitals, or asylums; now (1914) the Catholic Church numbers fourteen archbishops—three



CARDINAL GIBBONS

of whom are cardinals,—ninety-nine bishops, 18,568 priests, 6,602 educational institutions in which are distributed about 1,669,391 students, and over four hundred hospitals which annually care for about half a million patients. Bishop Carroll's flock of fifty thousand has increased to a Catholic laity of 16,067,985 souls, whose spiritual wants are administered to in 14,651 churches. Verily, the "mustard seed" has developed into a "mighty tree."

The Catholics of the United States have given the country a long line of illustrious men—theologians, philosophers, schol-

ars, orators, statesmen, soldiers, and sailors, a vast number of artisans and craftsmen who, by labor and thrift, have contributed to the growth of the wealth of the country. Their missionaries have sought out the most savage Indian tribes, and have won them to Christianity and civilization. Their sisterhoods have brought relief and comfort to multitudes in hospitals, on the battlefield, and in tenements. The teaching brotherhoods and sisterhoods of the Church have gathered in thousands of children to the nation, and fitted them to become worthy citizens of America, and an honor to the Church and State.

CHAPTER XLI

THEODORE ROOSEVELT'S ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN, 1901-1909

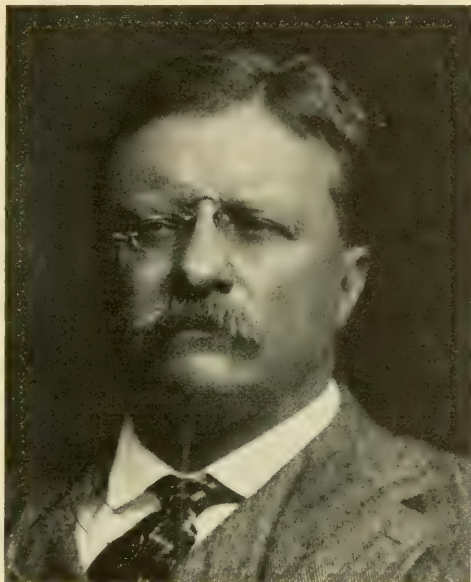
744. McKinley Is Re-elected. The interesting campaign of 1900, which we have already traced, resulted in the re-election of William McKinley by the large majority of two hundred and ninety-two electoral votes over Bryan, the Democratic choice. Theodore Roosevelt was chosen Vice-president.

President McKinley had endeared himself to the people by his personal graciousness and tact, and had won popular esteem during his first administration. His second term seemed even more promising. But scarcely had six months elapsed when (September 6), during a public reception given in honor of the President, at the time of the Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo, Czolgosz, an anarchist, concealing a revolver under cover of a bandaged hand, approached the President, apparently to shake hands, and shot him. The wounded executive died eight days later, our third martyred President. The tragedy shocked the whole world. The remains of President McKinley were conveyed to Washington and thence to Canton, Ohio, amidst the most touching manifestations of popular grief. While the interment was taking place (September 19) all business was suspended throughout the country. His last words, "God's will be done, not ours," were spoken to his grief-stricken wife.

745. Roosevelt Enters Upon the Presidential Office. Theodore Roosevelt, the Vice-president, took the oath of office as President at Buffalo, New York, on the day of McKinley's death, and at once assumed the duties of his office. He fol-

lowed his predecessor's policy and, for the time, retained his Cabinet.

Theodore Roosevelt was born in New York, 1858. His family, one of the oldest in the United States, was prominent in the early history of New York under the Dutch rulers of the province. He first came to national notice at the time of the Spanish-American War. After the war he was elected governor of New York, from which position he advanced to the vice-presidency of the United States and next to the presidency. As President he was direct and vigorous in his methods of conducting the nation's business. Though his aggressiveness aroused criticism, his honest, fearless personality soon won for him a great popularity, which fact enabled him to secure a considerable amount of good legislation, as well as to exercise great influence upon the general course of politics throughout the country.



THEODORE ROOSEVELT

His greatest service to the country probably consists in his resolute enforcement of such laws as affected the methods of business employed by monopolies and great corporations. He is often criticized for neglecting to use his great influence against the excessive protective tariff which tended to encourage unfair monopolies and a corrupt use of money in politics.

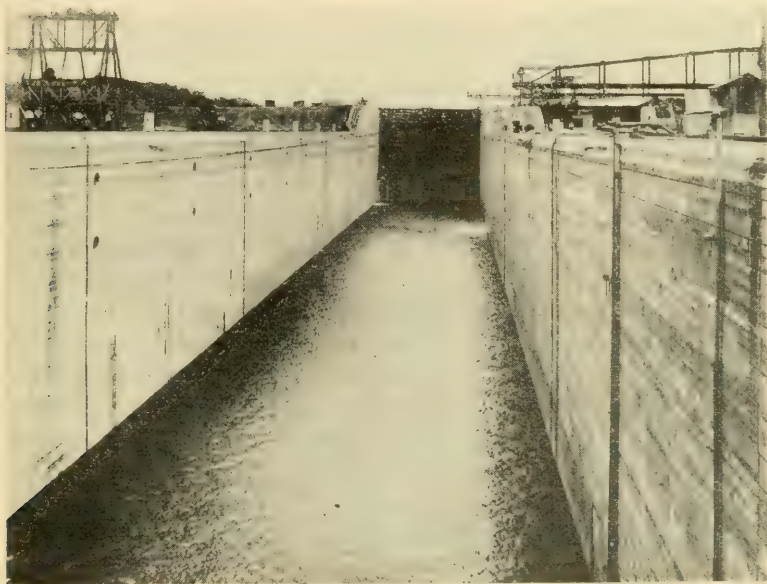
During Roosevelt's two terms of presidency, the Cabinet underwent many changes. On the whole, the members of the Cabinet, to which was added (1903) a Secretary of Commerce and Labor, formed a very able body of counsellors and administrators. Three of these became especially notable—John Hay, who served as Secretary of State under McKinley and retained this office until his death (1905); Elihu Root, who was Secretary of War until he succeeded Mr. Hay as Secretary of State, and William H. Taft, who resigned the post of first civil governor of the Philippine Islands under American rule to succeed Mr. Root as Secretary of War. All three in their respective departments were able advisers to the President.

746. The Anthracite Coal Strike. The most serious strike on record in American industrial history occurred (1902) in Pennsylvania. Under the leadership of John Mitchell, the president of the United Mine-workers of America, the anthracite coal miners of Pennsylvania demanded an increase of wages and a reduction in the hours of labor. The mine owners refused to arbitrate the questions in dispute, and consequently, one hundred and forty-seven thousand workmen were thrown out of employment for nearly five months, while a great fuel famine paralyzed industry and occasioned much suffering throughout the country. Finally, owing to the influence of President Roosevelt, who voiced the demands of public sentiment, the trouble was adjusted by a commission which decided in favor of the miners.

747. The Isthmian Canal. The expanding industrial interests of the United States as a world power necessarily revived the Panama Canal problem and the most important legislation of Roosevelt's first term was the Spooner Act (1902) which authorized Congress to construct the Panama canal. As a result, our government purchased the rights and property of the French Panama Canal Company for forty million dollars, promptly appropriated ten million dollars and authorized the

issuance of one hundred and thirty million dollars in bonds. The great task of digging the canal began May 1, 1904, and was completed in the summer of 1914. The canal enables our eastern ports to compete on even terms with the great ports of Europe in the commercial operations with China and Japan.

The canal is about fifty miles long, measuring from deep water in the Atlantic to deep water in the Pacific. The average



MIRAFLORES LOCKS, PANAMA CANAL

width of the canal is six hundred and forty-nine feet. The least depth of water at any point is forty-one feet. The cost of building the Panama canal is estimated at about four hundred million dollars.

The history of an isthmian canal dates back almost to the discovery of America. By the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty the United States and England agreed to renounce the right to

acquire independent control of an isthmian canal route. In 1881 a French company, under the leadership of Ferdinand de Lesseps, constructor of the Suez canal, began the construction of a canal at Panama. After several years of work at enormous expense the company became bankrupt and had to abandon the project. The United States had in past years authorized several surveys with a view of establishing a route through Nicaragua. The fact that the warship *Oregon* was obliged to make its long journey from San Francisco around Cape Horn in order to join the Atlantic squadron during the Spanish-American War, attracted attention to the difficulty of defending the two coasts of our country, and the demand for a canal became loud. An American company had in the meantime acquired the property of the French Panama Canal Company for a total of forty million dollars and offered it for sale to the United States. Through the diplomacy of Secretary Hay, the new Hay-Pauncefote Treaty superseded (1901) the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty. This conceded to the United States the right to own and control a future isthmian canal. A treaty with Colombia was next proposed, but this the republic rejected. Consequently, the disappointed inhabitants of Panama, considering their interest disregarded, revolted and set up a republic, independent of Colombia. This republic was promptly recognized by Congress and a treaty was entered into which secured to our government the control of a ten-mile strip across the isthmus. When Colombia interfered the United States sent troops to Panama, and American battleships prevented Colombia from landing a force to recover the seceded state. Fortunately, the revolution of Panama led to no serious disturbances, as the smaller nation yielded to a superior power. The proceedings of the United States, however, have been severely criticized by the Colombians, and by many Americans, as well as by foreign nations.

748. Irrigation of the Western Arid Lands. The western public domain included immense tracts of arid land. To irri-

gate and reclaim these for cultivation, Congress enacted (1902) a law which provides that the proceeds from the sale of public lands in certain western states—Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, North Dakota, Utah, and Wyoming—be expended in the construction of irrigation works, such as dams, reservoirs, and canals. Thus vast regions of hitherto useless lands are being made productive and available for settlers.

749. The Alaskan Award. Long-standing disputes concerning the boundary between the United States and Canada were called forth by the discovery of the Klondike gold fields. The trouble was successfully adjusted by arbitration (1903). Practically the whole of the disputed region was awarded to the United States, and our right to the control of the mainland shore thus confirmed.

750. Trans-Pacific Cable. The acquisition of the Philippines and the Hawaiian Islands soon suggested that some quick and convenient means of communication with these countries be established. Accordingly, a Trans-Pacific cable was laid (1903), which connects San Francisco with Hong-Kong, Honolulu, Guam, and Manila.

751. Three National Anniversary Celebrations. The one-hundredth anniversary of the Louisiana Purchase was commemorated by a World's Exposition held at St. Louis (1904), the metropolis of the land first visited by the illustrious La Salle. The fair was held in 1904, the year succeeding the centennial (1903), owing to the fact that arrangements were not completed in due time. In the number and magnificence of its structures, as well as in the exhibition of the useful and the beautiful, this exposition ranked as one of the most attractive and beneficial ever held. It was attended by nearly nineteen million persons and its cost amounted to nearly fifty million dollars.

The one-hundredth anniversary of the Lewis-Clark Expedition was celebrated (1905) by an oriental fair at Portland,

Oregon, in full view of the Cascades and their snow-capped peaks. From all parts of the world came representatives to view the wonderful growth which the Oregon country had made since the Lewis and Clark explorations, by which the right of the United States to our first Pacific possessions was confirmed. A notable feature of the fair was the extensive display made by Asiatic nations.

The three-hundredth anniversary of the settlement of Jamestown (1607) was commemorated by the Jamestown Exposition held at Norfolk, Virginia (1907). Its most notable and entertaining exhibit was the grand naval parade in which all the great nations of the world participated.

752. Two Appalling Disasters. Two appalling disasters occurred about this time. The excursion steamer, *General Slocum*, crowded with women and children on a Sunday-school picnic, went down with more than one thousand passengers, in the waters of the East River just outside of New York harbor. The other disaster occurred in Chicago, where a fire broke out in the Iroquois theater during a matinee performance. Over seven hundred people were burned or trodden to death.

753. The Campaign of 1904. Roosevelt's first term proved a period of great prosperity and there was general satisfaction with the President's straightforward policy and executive ability. Hence, on the approach of the presidential campaign of 1904, it seemed a foregone conclusion that he would be his own successor. He was unanimously renominated by the Republican convention held at Chicago. The Democrats in their convention at St. Louis named Judge Alton B. Parker, of New York, as their candidate. The Socialist party nominated Eugene V. Debs; the Populists, Thomas E. Watson; and the Prohibitionists, Silas C. Swallow. The campaign issue was largely one of personal popularity of the candidates.

The silver issue was not an important question, as the rich gold deposits discovered in the Klondike regions of Canada and Alaska had caused an increased supply of gold coin, and

a steady general prosperity existed. On the question of imperialism, or the permanent retention of the Philippines, the parties differed but little at that time. Both adopted a colonial policy as temporarily inevitable, but stood, nevertheless, for eventual independence of the islands. On the question of the tariff, the Republicans favored a protective tariff, though they did not state whether it should be increased or decreased; the Democrats advocated its reduction, as a means of restricting the power of capitalistic combinations. The Republicans wished to subject the combinations of capital and labor to restraint only when they became dangerous to private rights; the Democrats stood emphatically against monopolies altogether, and accused the Republicans of an alliance with corporations and trusts.

754. Roosevelt is Re-elected. The election of 1904 resulted in a sweeping victory for the Republicans. Theodore Roosevelt was elected by a majority of one hundred and ninety-six electoral votes over Parker, the Democratic candidate. Charles W. Fairbanks of Indiana was chosen Vice-president.

755. War between Russia and Japan. At the close of the Boxer trouble in China, the Russian government refused to withdraw the troops which it had stationed in Manchuria, China, for the protection of the Chinese Eastern Railroad. The event was looked upon by Japan as a menace to her national safety and commercial interests; and consequently she declared war against Russia. This war proved to be one of the most bloody engagements of modern times and threatened to involve other nations. The western nations watched the struggle with great concern, and were shocked by the frightful loss of life. Finally, through the diplomacy of Secretary Hay and President Roosevelt, commissioners from each of the warring countries met at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, and after long weeks of discussion signed a treaty of peace (1905).

756. Important Legislations of Roosevelt's Second Term. During the second term of President Roosevelt's administra-

tion, Congress enacted some important legislation: the meat inspection law, which was occasioned by the disclosure made in a popular novel, *The Jungle*, concerning bad conditions existing in the Chicago meat packing establishments; a pure food law by which manufacturers of prepared foods and drugs are forbidden to use adulterants in foods and medicines, and are required to label all food stuffs and packages so as to state exactly what they contain; the Oklahoma and Indian Territories were admitted as one state, the forty-sixth, under the name of the former, with Guthrie as its capital (in 1910, however, Oklahoma City became the capital); stricter naturalization laws were passed. These increased the head tax on immigrants from fifty cents to two dollars, excluded undesirable classes, especially anarchists, and regulated more carefully the process of naturalization; a new Interstate Commerce Law was passed. It reorganized the Interstate Commerce Commission and gave it the power to fix rates, though the railroads retained the right of appeal to the courts. Railroad companies were forbidden to engage in any other business.

757. An Insurrection in Cuba. An insurrection in Cuba (1906) placed the civil affairs of the island in a most critical situation. Upon President Palma's appeal for aid, Roosevelt sent William H. Taft, then Secretary of War, to adjust the internal affairs of Cuba. Reports to the effect that the government of the island was not stable and could last but a few months longer, induced the President to send United States troops to Cuba. Finally, after the resignation of the Cuban president and vice-president, the island was placed under a provisional governor and peace was restored. The United States troops were then withdrawn.

758. The San Francisco Disaster. A series of earthquake shocks occurred in California (1906). They brought disaster upon San Francisco and adjacent cities and towns. In San Francisco the shocks were followed by a terrible conflagration. Miles of the business part of the city were destroyed, hundreds

of lives lost, and nearly two hundred thousand people rendered homeless. The Californians, noted for their ability to cope with great difficulties, at once began the work of reconstruction and before the end of the year, earthquake-proof and fire-proof buildings of steel, stone, brick, or concrete dotted the fire-swept area. Within three years a new city had been erected on the ruins of the old. In solidity and beauty it far surpasses the former. In the meantime, however, Oakland, Los Angeles, and Seattle gained greatly in population and business prosperity at the expense of San Francisco.

759. The Second Peace Conference. For the second time an International Peace Conference met at The Hague (1907). Twenty-one nations were represented by distinguished delegates. The principal outcome was the establishment of the International Court of Arbitration commonly known as The Hague Tribunal. Both of these conferences, in which the United States took a leading part, gave rise to the hope that the time would soon come when national disagreements would be settled by arbitration.

760. Conservation of Our Natural Resources. Of great national importance was a Congress of State Governors and other national leaders, summoned by President Roosevelt to Washington (1908) for the purpose of considering the conservation of our natural resources. The aim was to devise some ways and means of preserving our forests, agricultural lands, coal mines, waterways and water power, fisheries, and game from depletion or destruction. As a people, Americans have been extremely wasteful of these natural resources of wealth, and it is now generally realized that if the waste is continued it will necessarily lead, sooner or later, to complete exhaustion. The Congress of Governors adopted the following resolutions: that forests be conserved and increased; that necessary provisions be made to prevent erosion, or washing away of arable lands; that waters be guarded and used to the best interests of the community; that arid regions be irrigated and swamps

drained, and, in general, that all sources of national wealth be sacredly preserved for the community as a whole, and no monopoly thereof tolerated.

For the conservation of forests, the Federal government transferred the national forest reserves, embracing sixty-three million acres, to the Department of Agriculture. A separate bureau, the Forest Service, employs a body of some one hundred and fifty professionally trained foresters who care for forests and public lands, and coöperate with private owners in introducing scientific forestry and in preventing reckless and wholesale cutting and careless burning of timber lands.

Besides caring for our forests the Federal government has done much through the agency of the Fish Commission to make good the waste occasioned by our earlier prodigality. Lakes and streams have been restocked with fish, and more stringent fish laws have been passed prohibiting fishing at certain times and places. Laws are being enforced forbidding the killing of game, except at stated times; while large parks are provided in which game may increase and multiply.

Included in the movement of conservation of our natural resources, is the proposal to improve our waterways, and so make them a means of competition with railroads. A plan to establish a ship route between Lake Michigan and the Gulf of Mexico is especially favored.

761. The United States Naval Cruise. Another of the most noteworthy events of President Roosevelt's administration was the globe-circling voyage of a fleet of American battleships (December 16, 1907 - February 22, 1909). After a display in Hampton Roads, Virginia, the fleet of sixteen warships, in command of Rear-Admiral Evans, set out by way of South America and the Pacific coast to San Francisco; thence, westward, under Rear-Admiral Sperry, to the Hawaiian Islands, the Philippines, Japan, and China, and finally back home by way of the Indian Ocean, the Suez Canal, the Mediterranean Sea, and the Strait of Gibraltar. After having traversed a distance

of more than thirty thousand miles, the fleet arrived at Hampton Roads on February 22, 1909. This cruise is noteworthy in naval history since it proved not only the expert seamanship of our navy, but also called into expression the friendly disposition of foreign nations and impressed upon them the strength of the American Republic. The sailors and officers were welcomed at all ports with warm enthusiasm.

762. Death of Leo XIII—Election and Coronation of Pius X. During the course of this administration the Catholic world mourned the death of the illustrious Pope Leo XIII. He was born at Carpineto, Italy, March 2, 1810, was elected Pope, February 20, 1878, and died at Rome, July 20, 1903. The cardinals immediately entered into a conclave and by fifty-five out of the possible sixty votes, elected (August 4) Guiseppe (Joseph) Sarto, Pope Pius X, as the successor of Leo XIII. His coronation took place on the following Sunday, August 9, 1903.

Catholics are especially grateful to Pius X for his promotion of frequent, and even daily Holy Communion; for enforcing again the ancient law of admitting children to Holy Communion at an early age, and for his *Motu Proprio* on sacred music.

763. Death of Eminent Americans. The death of three men eminent in the service of the country occurred during President Roosevelt's administration:

John Hay, who had served the country as an able statesman since 1861; Lew Wallace, the soldier and writer; and Grover Cleveland, who gave the nation two successful administrations.

764. The Panic of 1907. Badly managed monopolies of trade and of railroads, and unscrupulous speculations in banking caused a financial scare in 1907, which, beginning in Wall Street, New York, soon spread to all the business centers of the country. Depositors withdrew their money from the banks and hoarded it. The consequent shortage of money occasioned Congress to enact (1908) a law providing for the issuance by

national banks of emergency currency. After nearly two years, business resumed its normal conditions.

765. The Campaign of 1908. In the presidential campaign of 1908 the Republicans in their convention at Chicago, nominated as their candidate, William H. Taft of Ohio, the well-known jurist, Secretary of War, and governor of the Philippine Islands during the period of their reconstruction. Their platform stood for emergency currency, publicity of campaign expenses, and the issuance of writs of injunction by the Federal courts, in cases involving labor disputes. This latter plank failed to satisfy some of the Republican labor leaders, who finally supported the Democratic party, which, at Denver, nominated on the first ballot William J. Bryan of Nebraska. Its platform also favored emergency currency and the publicity of campaign expenses, a revision of the tariff, anti-injunction legislation with regard to labor disputes, an income tax, and government guarantee of deposits in national banks. Other candidates in the field were the Socialist, Eugene V. Debs, and the Prohibitionist, Eugene W. Chafin.

CHAPTER XLII

WILLIAM H. TAFT'S ADMINISTRATION

REPUBLICAN—1909-1913

766. Taft and Sherman Are Elected. The presidential election of 1908 was again a Republican victory. William H. Taft secured an electoral majority of one hundred and fifty votes over William J. Bryan, the Democratic candidate. James S. Sherman of New York was chosen Vice-president.

William H. Taft (1857-) was born in Ohio and was educated at Yale University. Among the public offices which he had honorably held previous to his election as the nation's executive may be mentioned those of president of the United States Philippine Commission, first civil governor of these islands (1901), and Secretary of War during Roose-



WILLIAM HOWARD TAFT

velt's administration. The experience gained in the broad scope of his civil duties, served him well in his office as President of

the nation. His administration was characterized by a keen sense of justice, a sincerity of purpose, and a high sense of public duty.

767. The Payne-Aldrich Tariff. In the presidential campaign of 1908 both parties stood for tariff revision. Consequently, after entering upon his office, President Taft promptly called an extra session of Congress and, after months of heated debates, the Payne-Aldrich Tariff Bill was passed (August, 1909). This measure, like the McKinley and Dingley tariff bills, was, contrary to the expectations of the people at large, highly protective. On the whole, it practically increased their rates. A very important clause of the Payne-Aldrich Bill provided for the appointment of a Tariff Board for purposes of investigation and to serve the President as a body of advisers on the subject.

768. The Postal Savings System. Following the example of foreign countries, Congress enacted (1910) a measure providing for the establishment of a postal savings bank system. According to this system any post-office where money orders are issued, may become a postal savings bank. These banks are completely in charge of a board of three trustees consisting of the Postmaster-General, the Secretary of the Treasury, and the Attorney-General. Any person ten years of age or over may become a depositor, but there is a restriction that no one can deposit more than one hundred dollars in a calendar month, or five hundred dollars altogether. Deposits must be made in sums of one dollar or multiple thereof, but smaller amounts can be saved by use of a card and stamp system, allowing accumulation up to one dollar, when the card and stamp can be deposited at the post-office. Interest is paid at the rate of two per cent per annum and deposits may be withdrawn on demand. Though this system is only in its infancy, financiers believe that many millions of dollars which have been in hiding, or needlessly expended in small amounts, will be entrusted to the government, as it guarantees payment and

gives the depositor absolute assurance of receiving back his money.

769. Reciprocity with Canada Is Defeated. In accordance with the request of President Taft in his message to congress, a bill providing for reciprocity with Canada was presented, and after months of debate and strong opposition in the Senate, was passed (1911) by both houses of Congress. In the Canadian Parliament, however, the reciprocity agreement was defeated. Thus the trade relations between the United States and Canada stand as they did before.

770. Discovery of the Two Poles. After twenty years of hazardous and difficult searching for the North Pole, Commander Robert E. Peary's efforts were finally crowned with success by its discovery in 1909.

Captain Roald Amundsen, a Norwegian explorer, discovered the South Pole two years later (1911).

771. The Treaty with Japan. Through the diplomacy of President Taft and Secretary Knox, a new treaty with Japan was negotiated (March, 1911). The clause recognizing the American right to exclude laborers from our country, which was included in the old treaty and which greatly hurt Japanese pride, was omitted in the new treaty. The treaty conceded to Japan the right to adopt a high protective tariff against American and other foreign trade. Since this is a right which we claim and exercise for ourselves we cannot reasonably withhold it from Japan. The old treaty limited to a low percentage the duties which Japan might charge on goods coming from the United States. The treaty met with opposition from western senators, especially because of the omission of the anti-immigration clause, which they feared might open the door to swarms of Japanese coolies whose presence, because of their cheap labor, was dreaded by American workingmen. These fears were, however, somewhat allayed when a statement signed by the Japanese ambassador at Washington was added to the treaty. According to this official declaration the Jap-

anese government for several years has been checking the immigration of Japanese to America.

772. Trouble with Nicaragua. An insurrection in Nicaragua (1909-1910) resulted in the deposition of the aged president, Zelaya, and the selection of a new executive, Jose Estrada, by the insurgents. Preceding the deposition two American surveyors, Canon and Groce, residing in Nicaragua, were imprisoned and shot by Zelaya's orders, on charge of being adventurers fighting in the ranks of the insurgents. On receipt of the news, our government sent a number of American war ships to Nicaraguan ports. An investigation of the matter was begun and war between Nicaragua and the United States seemed imminent. Matters, however, were finally peaceably adjusted.

773. Mexican Border Warfare. Scarcely had the trouble with Nicaragua subsided when our relations with Mexico became strained (1910-1911). Mexican insurgents headed by Francisco A. Madero revolted against President Diaz because of the tyrannical rule of the latter. During the course of the uprising the rebels advanced upon the Texas and Arizona borders, and affairs became so critical that our War Department sent troops to guard the Rio Grande. President Taft, in consequence of the killing and wounding of several Americans in Arizona, warned the Mexican government and the insurgents not to endanger American lives by fighting so near the border, and even threatened to intervene. After months of resistance, President Diaz, seeing that the insurgents were gaining their cause, issued a manifesto of resignation. A provisional president was elected and the revolution seemed to be at an end.

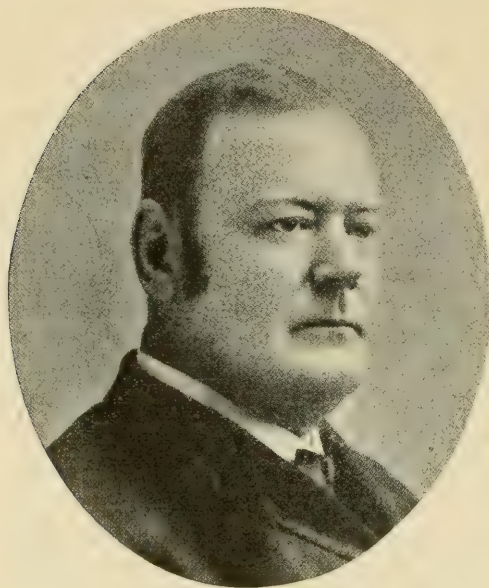
774. The Newfoundland Fishery Question. The long standing disputes between the United States and Great Britain regarding the right of fishing off the coast of Newfoundland were submitted to The Hague Tribunal for arbitration (1910). This was the most important case thus far decided by the Inter-

national Peace Commission. Both countries submitted to the verdict, though neither was wholly satisfied. The decision was clearly against the United States. Of the questions presented to the Tribunal the two most important were decided in favor of Great Britain and the remaining, which were of much less importance, in favor of the United States. The Tribunal ceded to Great Britain the right to make Newfoundland fishing regulations without the consent of the United States, but with the understanding that England must not violate the treaty of 1818; closed to American fishermen on no-treaty coasts all bays ten miles or less between headlands; gave the American fishermen the right to enter certain bays for shelter, repairs, wood, or water, but forbade the taking, drying, or curing of fish therein; and granted the United States the liberty to take fish in the bays, harbors, and creeks on certain parts of the southern and western coasts of Newfoundland.

775. The Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition. An international exposition, The Alaska-Yukon-Pacific, was held at Seattle, Washington, during the summer of 1909. This fair had a world-wide representation and demonstrated the marvelous progress of the Alaska and Yukon territories, as well as of the whole of western America, and tended to increase the trade of the countries that are lapped by the waters of the Pacific.

776. Woman Suffrage. The question of woman's suffrage has been widely discussed in legislatures and conventions and is finding favor in public opinion. Many states have granted women the right to vote on certain financial questions and in the election of school officers. In some states, chiefly the mountain states where women are fewer in number than men, woman suffrage is in highest favor. In Colorado, Idaho, Utah, Wyoming, Arizona, California, Illinois, Kansas, Oregon, and Washington women may vote at various elections. The right of woman's suffrage is based chiefly on the argument that women pay their taxes and, as intelligent Americans, are as deeply interested as men in school, financial, and political questions.

777. Vacancy in the Chief Judiciary. In 1910 the United States mourned the death of Melville W. Fuller, who had been



CHIEF JUSTICE WHITE

Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court for twenty-two years. Edward D. White, a Catholic, was appointed his successor—the second instance in American history in which a Catholic has filled that exalted position. Chief Justice White was born in Louisiana in 1845, and educated at Mount St. Mary's, Maryland, at the Jesuit College, New Orleans, and at Georgetown University. He was elected Justice of

the Louisiana Supreme Court in 1878 and United States Senator, in 1891. In 1894 he was appointed Justice of the United States Supreme Court by President Cleveland and in 1910 elevated to the Chief Justiceship by President Taft.

778. Two New States. New Mexico and Arizona were admitted (1911) to the Union as the forty-seventh and the forty-eighth state.

779. A Great Disaster. One of the most appalling disasters in the history of ocean traffic occurred off the Newfoundland banks (April, 1912). The steamer *Titanic* of the White Star Line, the most gigantic passenger ship ever afloat, was making its first voyage across the Atlantic from Southampton to New

York. While advancing at the high speed of twenty-one knots an hour, it crashed into an iceberg which ripped off the heavy steel plates from bow to midship. The water gradually filled the compartments and after some hours the great vessel, with 1347 men, 103 women and 53 children, sank to the bottom of the Atlantic.

A touching incident is related of Rev. J. Peruschitz, O. S. B., and two Catholic priests on board. While the steamer was sinking, these priests were busy consoling and absolving their fellow Catholics gathered around them and all went down reciting the rosary alternately.

780. Destructive Floods. The flow of water from heavy rains and the melting of snows on the Rocky and Alleghany Mountains had so swollen the lower course of the Mississippi as to cause destructive floods (1912). Hundreds of lives and millions of dollars' worth of property were destroyed and thousands of persons rendered homeless.

781. Three New Cardinals. An event of particular interest to the Catholics of the United States was the creation (November, 1911) of three American Cardinals—Diomedede Falconio, Apostolic delegate at Washington; John Farley, Archbishop of New York; and William O'Connell, Archbishop of Boston. On the day appointed, the three cardinals elect repaired to the apostolic palace in Rome, where His Holiness Pius X conferred upon them the red hat, the emblem of the singular dignity of the cardinalate. The ceremonies over, each cardinal was assigned his titular church in Rome. The Holy Father expressed to the newly appointed American cardinals, his recognition of the loyalty of his American children, and his gratification at the growth of the Catholic Church in the American Republic.

782. The Campaign of 1912. The long and exciting campaign of 1912 was marked, more than any other in our recent history, by bitter personalities between the popular leaders of the Republican party. The Republicans in their National

Convention at Chicago nominated William Howard Taft of Ohio for a second term in the White House; the Democrats at Baltimore chose Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey as their candidate for the presidency. A sudden split in the Republican party during the convention caused the formation of a new party. This party called itself the Progressive party and nominated Theodore Roosevelt as its candidate.



785. The Underwood Tariff. Many supporters of the Democratic platform attributed the high cost of living to high tariff rates; accordingly, Representative Underwood introduced a bill proposing a reduction of the Payne-Aldrich Tariff. After many long and hot debates, the measure finally passed both houses and was signed (1913) by President Wilson. The Underwood Tariff abolished all duties on meats, fish, dairy products, potatoes, coal, iron ore, lumber, many classes of farm and office machinery, and raw wool. It reduced nearly two-thirds of the tariff on woolen clothing and one-third on cotton clothing, provided for free sugar in 1916, and for a general reduction on all important articles in general use.

786. The Sixteenth Amendment—Income Tax. The proposed Sixteenth Amendment to the Constitution was ratified (1913) by the necessary three-fourths of all the state legislatures. This amendment empowered Congress to lay and collect taxes on incomes without apportionment among the several states, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

In accordance with this Sixteenth Amendment, Congress enacted a law providing for an income tax, by which every person in the United States and every American citizen abroad must pay a tax of at least one per cent on his or her yearly income, if it amounts to more than four thousand dollars. If the income is above twenty thousand dollars, the tax is two per cent; and there are higher rates for still larger incomes.

787. The Administration Currency Bill, also called the Owens-Glass Bill, enacted in 1913, provides for a system of large regional reserve banks—not less than eight nor more than twelve, formed by a joining together of national banks—and for the establishment of branch banks where business requires it. It also creates a federal reserve board of seven members, consisting of four men from the banks and three federal officers (Secretary of the Treasury, Secretary of Agriculture, and Comptroller of Currency). The most important feature, the so-called “re-discount provision,” is that, when

necessary, any bank can turn over to the regional banks, notes of business men who have borrowed money from it, and get fifty per cent of their face value in new paper money. The new notes are to be guaranteed by the local bank and the United States, and protected by a gold reserve of forty per cent to insure absolute safety. The whole idea is to prevent panics, by making capital and credit flow where it is needed and not letting it pile up uselessly where it is not needed.

788. The Seventeenth Amendment. The Seventeenth Amendment to the Constitution, ratified (1913) by the necessary three-fourths of all the states, requires that United States Senators be elected directly by the people of the states, not by the legislatures.

789. The Parcel Post. A parcel post provision had been enacted and had gone into effect during President Taft's administration (1913). It provided that packages weighing eleven pounds or less could be sent by mail at very low rates. The provision was, some months later, modified by raising the limit of weight to twenty pounds in the first two zones, and reducing the rate. During President Wilson's administration it was furthermore ordered that, beginning January 1, 1914, packages of fifty pounds be carried, not more than one hundred and fifty miles, and that books be admitted to the Parcel Post.

790. The Tolls Repeal Bill. According to the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty with England, the Panama Canal was to be free and open to the vessels of commerce and war of all nations on terms of entire equality. This provision of the treaty was apparently violated by a subsequent act of Congress which exempted from the payment of tolls vessels engaged in the coastwise trade of the United States. After many long and heated discussions in Congress, the Tolls Repeal Bill, which was strongly supported by President Wilson, was finally passed (1914), repealing this part of the Panama Canal Tolls Law. The passage of this law was highly gratifying to Great Britain.

who declared it her duty to pay a tribute of respect to the statesman who did not hesitate to risk his personal popularity and political prestige in doing what he believed to be right and just.

791. United States Builds Alaskan Railroad. A law providing for building one thousand miles of government-owned railroad in Alaska was enacted (1914), empowering the President to select the route and have entire control of the work. The law is of more than ordinary importance and may eventually lead either to government ownership or to very rigorous government supervision of railroads and other transportation lines.

792. Our Warships Become Schools. At the suggestion of Secretary of the Navy Daniels, our warships have become schools (1914) where the enlisted men and non-commissioned officers are utilizing their leisure hours during time of peace in acquiring an education. The teaching, in the main, is done by the officers who themselves have been educated at the nation's expense. The courses include not only those studies which are of special use on shipboard, but also those which give general culture and vocational training.

793. Trouble With Mexico. As was previously stated, the people of Mexico rose in rebellion (1911) at the re-election of President Diaz, who, for thirty years, had ruled the country like a monarch, and the rebellion ended only with his resignation. Scarcely had his successor, Madero, the leader of the revolutionists, entered upon the presidential office when a new insurrection broke out. General Huerta and others who had been supporting Madero, suddenly turned their troops against him, forced him to resign, and finally murdered him. Huerta now became provisional governor, but President Wilson refused to recognize this government, on the principle that the United States should not recognize governments in this hemisphere that rest upon nothing but violence and personal ambition. While a fierce revolution against Huerta raged in north-

ern Mexico, several American sailors in a motor boat, flying the American flag, strayed beyond the Mexican border and were captured by the Mexicans. Although they were released after a short time, the incident was considered an insult to the American flag, and an apology and a salute of twenty-one guns for the flag were demanded. When Mexico refused to comply with this demand, the entire Atlantic fleet of the United States Navy was ordered to Mexican ports, while Congress empowered the President to use the Army, the Navy, and the Treasury as he might deem best for upholding the dignity and honor of the nation. The President, however, took a firm stand against any declaration of war, and stated that this Mexican affair need not culminate in war if handled with firmness. Delay was fast becoming dangerous, for a German steamer loaded with munitions of war and consigned to the Mexican government arrived in the harbor of Vera Cruz. The President now ordered the seizure of the customhouse at Vera Cruz to prevent the German steamer from landing her dangerous cargo, and the customhouse was taken without opposition. A slight encounter, however, followed later during which several were killed and wounded on both sides.

At this important crisis envoys from Argentina, Brazil, and Chile (A. B. C. envoys) offered to bring about a peaceful adjustment of matters. Both the United States and the Huerta government of Mexico agreed to desist from further action and send representatives to meet the A. B. C. envoys at Niagara Falls, Canada. The result was a final protocol (1914), demanding the resignation of Huerta and the withdrawal of American troops from Vera Cruz. The insult to our flag, the alleged reason for the occupation of Vera Cruz, was condoned, and hostilities were considered at an end.

794. Cape Cod Canal. A canal, under serious consideration even in Colonial days, connecting Buzzard's Bay and Massachusetts Bay, was opened to commerce (1914). It is thirteen miles in length and its construction cost twelve million dollars. By

its use the water route between Boston and New York is shortened by seventy miles and coastwise vessels can now avoid the dangerous passage around Cape Cod.

795. European War—Declaration of Neutrality. The general peace of Europe, for a long time so delicately balanced,



POPE PIUS X

was suddenly overthrown (1914) by the assassination in Servia of Archduke Ferdinand, the heir apparent to the Austrian throne, and the Duchess. Austria-Hungary declared war against Servia, and was supported by her ally, Germany. Russia took sides with Servia, and was supported by France and England, which countries, together with Russia, form the

“Triple Entente.” The war situation in Europe led President Wilson to issue a declaration of neutrality, in which he appealed to the American people and warned them against any breach of neutrality springing out of partisanship.

796. Death of Pope Pius X. In the midst of the preparations for the great continental war, the illustrious Pope Pius X died (August 20, 1914) with the words, “Together in one—all things in Christ,” on his lips. He was in the eightieth year of his life and the twelfth of his pontificate. To see millions of his children, the heirs of nineteen centuries of Christianity, entering upon war hastened the Holy Father’s end.

No Pope of modern times has effected so many and salutary changes in the internal government of the Church. His decrees on frequent communions and on the first communion of children will immortalize the great Pius X as the “Pope of the People,” and the “Pope of the Blessed Sacrament;” while his last message to Christendom, which was a prayer and an appeal for peace, will proclaim him to future generations as the “Pope of Peace.”

797. Election of Benedict XV. The illustrious Pius X was laid to rest but a short time when the assembled conclave of Cardinals elected (August 31) as his successor Cardinal della Chiesa, the present Pope Benedict XV. The new pontiff’s first apostolic benediction sent to any foreign country was for America. He expressed the hope that our country’s attitude in favor of peace, together with the prayers raised to the Almighty throughout the world, would procure peace for the warring nations of Europe.

CHRONOLOGICAL REVIEW

1865-1914

Andrew Johnson's Administration (1865-1869)—Republican.

1865. Andrew Johnson is inaugurated as the seventeenth President.

Reconstruction of the southern states is begun.

The Freedman's Bureau Bill is passed (March).

President Johnson issues an Amnesty Proclamation (May).

The Thirteenth Amendment is adopted (December).

1866. The Civil Rights Bill is passed (March).

The Atlantic cable is successfully laid (June).

The Second Plenary Council meets at Baltimore.

1867. Nebraska is admitted to the Union as the thirty-seventh state (March).

The Tenure of Office Bill is passed (March).

The United States purchases Alaska from Russia.

Maximilian is shot in Mexico (June).

The Reconstruction Act is passed over Johnson's veto.

1868. President Johnson is impeached by the House of Representatives, but the trial ends in his acquittal.

The Fourteenth Amendment is adopted (July).

Burlingame negotiates a treaty with China.

Carpet-bag governments established in the South.

Ulysses S. Grant's Administration (1869-1877)—Republican.

1869. Ulysses S. Grant is inaugurated as the eighteenth President.

The Union Pacific Railroad is completed (May).

Edwin M. Stanton dies (December).

The Ku Klux Klan society is organized in the South.

1870. The Fifteenth Amendment is adopted (March).

- Generals Lee and Thomas and Admiral Farragut die.
1871. Great fires occur in Chicago. Forest fires lay waste parts of Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Michigan.
All the states are again represented in Congress.
1872. The Credit Mobilier, Tweed Ring, Whiskey Ring, and other political scandals occur.
The Alabama difficulty is settled.
A destructive fire breaks out in Boston (November).
President Grant is re-elected.
1873. A great financial panic disturbs the country.
The Modoc Indians are subdued.
A law is passed demonetizing silver.
1875. Archbishop McCloskey is created cardinal (April).
Ex-president Johnson dies.
1876. The centennial of the Declaration of Independence is celebrated in Philadelphia (May—November).
Colorado admitted as the thirty-eighth state (August).
General Custer's force slaughtered by Sioux Indians.
Rutherford B. Hayes's Administration (1877-1881)—Republican.
1877. Rutherford B. Hayes is inaugurated as the nineteenth President.
General Grant starts on his tour around the world.
War occurs with the Nez Perces Indians of Idaho.
1878. The yellow fever epidemic rages in the South.
William Cullen Bryant, poet and journalist, dies.
The Bland-Allison Bill is passed by Congress.
The electric light is invented by Edison.
Pope Pius IX dies and is succeeded by Leo XIII.
1879. Resumption of Specie Payment goes into effect.
Hayes vetoes the Chinese immigration bill.
- (Garfield's and Arthur's Administrations (1881-1885)—Republicans.
1881. James A. Garfield is inaugurated as the twentieth President.

The President is shot by Charles Guiteau (July 2) and dies (September 19).

Vice-president Chester A. Arthur is formally inaugurated as the twenty-first President.

The nation celebrates the Yorktown centennial.

1882. Congress passes an act restricting Chinese immigration for ten years.

1883. The Pendleton Civil Service Reform Act is passed. Letter postage is reduced to two cents.

1884. A great cotton exposition is opened at New Orleans. The Third Plenary Council meets at Baltimore.

Grover Cleveland's Administration (1885-1889)—Democratic.

1885. Grover Cleveland is inaugurated as the twenty-second President.

Venerable Cardinal McCloskey, Ex-president Grant, General McClellan, and Vice-president Hendricks die.

1886. Archbishop Gibbons is created cardinal.

The Presidential Succession Bill is enacted.

The Statue of Liberty is erected in New York Harbor.

1887. Samuel J. Tilden dies.

The Interstate Commerce Law is passed.

The Tenure of Office Act is repealed.

Anarchists cause serious riots in Chicago.

1888. Australian Ballot System adopted in many states.

Benjamin Harrison's Administration (1889-1893)—Republican.

1889. Benjamin Harrison is inaugurated as the twenty-third President.

Oklahoma Territory is opened to settlers (April).

The nation celebrates the centennial of the beginning of our government under the Constitution and of Washington's inauguration (April).

A disastrous flood occurs at Johnstown, Pennsylvania.

The Catholic Church celebrates the hundredth anniver-

sary of the establishment of the hierarchy (November).
North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington are admitted to the Union (November).

The Pan-American Congress assembles in Washington.
An insurrection occurs in the Samoan Islands.

1890. The Dependent Pension Bill is passed.

The McKinley Tariff is enacted.

The Silver Coinage Act is passed.

Idaho and Wyoming are admitted to the Union (July).

The Sioux Indians are defeated in a bloody battle with the United States troops; Sitting Bull is killed.

1891. Congress amends the Immigration Laws.

1892. The Geary Act is passed by Congress.

Labor strikes occur in Pennsylvania.

Grover Cleveland's Administration (1893-1897)—Democratic.

1893. Grover Cleveland is inaugurated as the twenty-fourth President.

The Hawaiians rebel against their queen.

A Seal Fishery Treaty is negotiated with England.

The Sherman Act is repealed.

The Wilson Tariff Act is passed.

The World's Columbian Exposition is held in Chicago.

1894. The Hawaiian Islands are organized into an independent republic.

1895. The Venezuelan difficulty is settled by arbitration.

1896. Utah is admitted to the Union as the forty-fifth state.

William McKinley's Administration (1897-1901)—Republican.

1897. William McKinley is inaugurated as the twenty-fifth President.

The Dingley Tariff Bill becomes a law (July).

Grant's tomb is dedicated at Riverside Park, New York

The Congressional library building is opened.

1898. Spain grants self-government to Cuba and Porto Rico (January).
The *Maine* is blown up in Havana harbor (February).
Congress declares war to exist with Spain (April 25).
McKinley calls for volunteers.
Cuba is blockaded by the American fleet.
General Shafter wins the battle of El Caney.
Lieutenant Hobson sinks the *Merrimac* (June).
Commodore Schley destroys Cervera's fleet.
The Spanish commander, Toral, surrenders Santiago to the Americans (July).
General Miles captures Porto Rico (July).
Admiral Dewey wins the battle of Manila (May 1).
A treaty of peace is signed at Paris (December 10).
Porto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines are ceded to the United States.
The Hawaiian Islands are annexed by the United States.
The Trans-Mississippi Exposition is held at Omaha (June—November).
1899. An insurrection occurs in the Philippines.
The Samoan difficulty is settled and the United States acquires Tutuila.
The war in the Philippines is ended.
The United States sends commissioners to the World's Peace Conference at The Hague.
Vice-president Hobart dies.
1900. The Boxer uprising occurs in China.
United States secures the "Open-Door" with China.
Washington celebrates its one-hundredth birthday as the capital of the United States.
McKinley is re-elected (November).
1901. President McKinley is assassinated (September 6).
Vice-president Roosevelt assumes the presidential office.
1902. Irrigation laws are passed for the reclamation of western arid lands.

The United States acquires the islands of St. Thomas, St. Croix, and St. John.

1903. A coal strike occurs in Pennsylvania.
The Trans-Pacific cable is laid.
The Alaskan boundary dispute is settled.
Pope Leo XIII dies (July 20) and Pius X is elected his successor (August 4).
1904. The Louisiana Purchase Exposition is held at St. Louis.
Work on Panama canal begun by United States.

Theodore Roosevelt's Administration (1905-1909)—Republican.

1905. Theodore Roosevelt is inaugurated as the twenty-sixth President.
Lewis and Clark Exposition held at Portland, Oregon.
A treaty between Russia and Japan is negotiated at Portsmouth, New Hampshire.
1906. Cuban affairs are adjusted.
San Francisco is devastated by an earthquake.
1907. A financial panic occurs.
The Second Peace Conference convenes at The Hague.
American battleship fleet circumnavigates globe.
1908. Provisions are made for the conservation of our natural resources.
Ex-president Cleveland dies.

William H. Taft's Administration (1909-1913)—Republican.

1909. William H. Taft is inaugurated as the twenty-seventh President.
Robert E. Peary discovers the North Pole (April).
The Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition is celebrated at Seattle, Washington (June—November).
The Payne-Aldrich Tariff Bill is passed (August).
1910. Postal Savings Banks are established.
The Hague Tribunal settles the Newfoundland fishing question.

Chief Justice Fuller dies (July), and Edward D. White becomes his successor.

War with Mexico is imminent.

1911. A new treaty is negotiated with Japan (March).
Archbishops Falconio, Farley, and O'Connell are created cardinals.

New Mexico and Arizona are admitted to the Union.

Amundsen discovers the South Pole (December).

1912. Destructive floods occur in the lower Mississippi.
The *Titanic* disaster occurs.

Woodrow Wilson's Administration (1913-)—Democrat.

1913. Woodrow Wilson is inaugurated as the twenty-eighth President.

The Sixty-third Congress meets in extra session.

The Underwood Tariff Measure is enacted.

Congress passes Sixteenth and Seventeenth Amendments.

An Income Tax Law is passed.

A New Currency Bill goes into effect.

The Parcel Post is established.

1914. A Treaty with Colombia is negotiated.
The Tolls Repeal Bill is passed.
United States builds Alaskan railroad.
Trouble with Mexico is adjusted.
Our war ships become schools.
Cape Cod Canal is completed.
President Wilson makes his famous Declaration of Neutrality.
Pope Pius X dies and Benedict XV is elected his successor.

THE APPENDIX

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

In Congress, July 4, 1776.

The following declaration of principles was agreed to on July 4, 1776, and is thus recorded in the Journal of Congress for that day:

Agreeably to the order of the day, the Congress resolved itself into a committee of the whole to take into their further consideration the Declaration; and, after some time, the president resumed the chair, and Mr. Harrison reported that the committee have agreed to a Declaration, which they desired him to report. The Declaration being read, was agreed to as follows:

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of

Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

1. He has refused his assent to laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

2. He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

3. He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

4. He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

5. He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

6. He has refused for a long time, after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the state remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasions from without and convulsions within.

7. He has endeavored to prevent the population of these states; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

8. He has obstructed the administration of justice by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

9. He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices and the amount and payment of their salaries.

10. He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

11. He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

12. He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

13. He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our Constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

a. For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us.

b. For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states.

- c. For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world.
- d. For imposing taxes on us without our consent.
- e. For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury.
- f. For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses.
- g. For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies.
- h. For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments.
- i. For suspending our own legislature and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

14. He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

15. He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

16. He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

17. He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

18. He has excited the domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms: our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in our attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind—enemies in war; in peace, friends.

We therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

The foregoing declaration was, by order of Congress, engrossed and signed by the following members:

		John Hancock.
NEW HAMPSHIRE	RHODE ISLAND	NEW YORK
Josiah Bartlett	Stephen Hopkins	William Floyd
William Whipple	William Ellery	Philip Livingston
Matthew Thornton		Francis Lewis
	CONNECTICUT	Lewis Morris
MASSACHUSETTS BAY	Roger Sherman	
Samuel Adams	Samuel Huntington	NEW JERSEY
John Adams	William Williams	Richard Stockton
Robert Treat Paine	Oliver Wolcott	John Witherspoon
Elbridge Gerry	Thomas M'Kean	Francis Hopkinson
John Hart		
Abraham Clark	MARYLAND	NORTH CAROLINA
	Samuel Chase	William Hooper
PENNSYLVANIA	William Paca	Joseph Hewes
Robert Morris	Thomas Stone	John Penn
Benjamin Rush	Charles Carroll of Car-	SOUTH CAROLINA
Benjamin Franklin	rollton	Edward Rutledge
John Morton		Thomas Heyward, Jr.
George Clymer	VIRGINIA	Thomas Lynch, Jr.
James Smith	George Wythe	Arthur Middleton
George Taylor	Richard Henry Lee	
James Wilson	Thomas Jefferson	GEORGIA
George Ross	Benjamin Harrison	
	Thomas Nelson, Jr.	Button Gwinnett
DELAWARE	Francis Lightfoot Lee	Lyman Hall
Caesar Rodney	Carter Braxton	George Walton
George Read		

THE PROVISIONS OF THE CONSTITUTION OUTLINED

Steps leading to the adoption of the Constitution:

1. The New England Confederacy.
2. The Albany Plan.
3. The Stamp Act Congress.
4. The Committees of Correspondence.
5. The First Continental Congress.
6. The Declaration of Independence.
7. The Adoption of the Articles of Confederation.
8. The Annapolis Convention.
9. The Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia.

Relative to the United States Government, the Constitution provides for:

1. The Legislative Department.
 - a.* House of Representatives.
 - b.* Senate.
2. The Executive Department.
President.
3. The Judicial Department.
 - a.* Federal Judges.
 - b.* Federal Courts.

Relative to the House of Representatives, the Constitution provides for:

1. The manner of electing the members.
By the people of the several states.
2. The term of office.
Two years.
3. The qualifications of members.
 - a.* Twenty-five years old.
 - b.* A citizen of the United States for seven years.
 - c.* A resident of the state for which chosen.
4. The distribution of members. "Among the states according to the number of inhabitants (From 1910-1920 the membership of the House of Representatives is 433 and the unit of representation is 212,032).
5. The presiding officer of the House.
Members elect the Speaker.
6. The power to impeach Federal officers.
7. The Census.

Relative to the Senate, the Constitution provides for:

1. The number of members.
Two from each state.
2. The manner of election.
By popular vote.
3. The term of office.
Six years.
4. The qualifications of members.
 - a. Thirty years of age.
 - b. A citizen of the United States for nine years.
 - c. A resident of the state for which elected.
5. The presiding officer.
 - a. Vice-president of the United States.
 - b. In absence of a Vice-president, a president pro tempore elected by the Senate.
6. The power to act as a court to try impeachments brought by the House of Representatives.

Relative to Congress as a whole the Constitution provides:

1. For the time of meeting.
Each year on the first Monday of December.
2. For the quorum.
Majority.
3. That each house determine its rule of procedure.
4. That each house keep a journal.
5. That neither house adjourn for more than three days without the consent of the other.
6. For the method of passing laws.

Congress has power:

1. To lay taxes.
2. To borrow money.
3. To regulate commerce.
4. To pass laws regulating—
 - a. The naturalization of foreigners.
 - b. Bankruptcy.
5. To coin money.
6. To fix the standard of weights and measures.
7. To establish post-offices.
8. To provide for patents and copyrights.
9. To declare war.
10. To raise and support armies.

11. To maintain a navy.
12. To provide for a standing army.
13. To admit new states.
14. To pass laws necessary to carry out the above powers.

Relative to the President the Constitution provides for:

1. The term of office.
Four years.
2. The manner of election.
By presidential electors chosen by the people of the several states.
3. The qualifications.
 - a. A natural born citizen of the United States.
 - b. Thirty-five years old.
 - c. Fourteen years residence within the United States.
4. The oath of office.
To support the Constitution of the United States.

The President's powers:

1. He is commander-in-chief of:
 - a. The Army.
 - b. The Navy.
 - c. The Militia in service of the United States.
2. He may grant reprieves and pardons.
3. With the consent of the Senate he
 - a. Makes treaties.
 - b. Appoints ambassadors, ministers, consuls, Federal judges.

The President's chief duties are:

1. To send or bring messages to Congress.
2. To summon extra sessions of Congress whenever he deems it necessary.
3. To receive ambassadors.
4. To execute, or enforce, the laws.

Relative to the Federal Judges the Constitution provides for:

1. Their appointment.
By the President with the consent of the Senate.
2. Their membership.
Fixed by Congress.
3. Their term of office.
During good behavior.

Relative to the Federal courts, the Constitution provides for:

1. One Supreme Court.
2. Inferior courts to be established by Congress.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

PREAMBLE

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I

THE LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT

The Congress: Its Divisions and Powers

Section 1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

The House: Its Composition and Powers

Sec. 2. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several states, and the electors in each state shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the state legislature.

No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state in which he shall be chosen.

(Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons.) The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each state shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made the state of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massa-

chusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any state, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers, and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

The Senate: Its Composition and Powers

Sec. 3. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year; of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any state, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall fill such vacancies.

No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice-president of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president pro tempore, in the absence of the Vice-president, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments; when sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall, nevertheless, be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment according to law.

Congressional Elections and Date of Assembling

Sec. 4. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each state by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Rules of Procedure of Senate and House

Sec. 5. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner and under such penalties as each house may provide.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

Compensation and Privileges of Members

Sec. 6. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

Methods of Legislation

Sec. 7. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Powers Vested in Congress

Sec. 8. The Congress shall have power:

To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defenses and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

To establish post offices and post roads;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the states, respectively, the appointment of the officers and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular states, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the state in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings; and—

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

Limits to Powers of the Federal Government

Sec. 9. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the states now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in case of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any state.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one state over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one state, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States. And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

Limits to Powers of the States

Sec. 10. No state shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

No state shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any state on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

No state shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another state, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II

THE EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT

The Executive Officers; the Electoral College

Section 1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four

years, and, together with the Vice-president, chosen for the same term, be elected, as follows:

Each state shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the state may be entitled in the Congress; but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

[The electors shall meet in their respective states and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said House shall, in like manner, choose the President. But in choosing the President the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice-president. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice-president.]

The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-president, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-president, declaring what officer shall then

act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

The president shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation: "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

Powers Granted to the President

Sec. 2. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint, ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior offices as they think proper in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The President shall have power to fill up vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

The President's Duties

Sec. 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be

faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Impeachment of Executive and Civil Officers

Sec. 4. The President, Vice-president, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III

THE JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

The Federal Courts—Supreme and Inferior

Section 1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Powers and Jurisdiction of the Federal Courts

Sec. 2. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more states; between a state and citizens of another state; between citizens of different states; between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states, and between a state, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, and those in which a state shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the state where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any state, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

Treason: Its Nature and Punishment

Sec. 3. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV

RELATION OF THE STATE AND FEDERAL GOVERNMENTS

Recognition of State Authority

Section 1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each state to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other state. And the Congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

Laws Regarding Citizens of the States

Sec. 2. The citizens of each state shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states.

A person charged in any state with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another state, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the state from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the state having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labor in one state, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

Admission of States and Regulation of United States Territories

Sec. 3. New states may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new state shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other state; nor any state be formed by the junction of two or more states, or parts of states, without the consent of the legislatures of the states concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular state.

Protection Guaranteed by the Federal Government

Sec. 4. The United States shall guarantee to every state in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V

POWER AND METHOD OF AMENDING THE CONSTITUTION

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several states, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several states, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no state, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI

PUBLIC DEBTS; THE SUPREME LAW; OATH OF OFFICE;
RELIGIOUS TEST PROHIBITED

All debts contracted and engagements entered into before the adoption of this Constitution shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution as under the confederation.

This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every state shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any state to the contrary notwithstanding.

The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several state legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several states, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII

RATIFICATION AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE CONSTITUTION

The ratification of the conventions of nine states shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the states so ratifying the same.

Done in convention by the unanimous consent of the states present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names,

GEO. WASHINGTON,
Deputy from Virginia.

NEW HAMPSHIRE:

John Langdon
Nicholas Gilman

MASSACHUSETTS:

Nathaniel Gorham
Rufus King

CONNECTICUT: .

William Samuel Johnson
Roger Sherman

NEW YORK:

Alexander Hamilton

NEW JERSEY:

William Livingston
David Brearley
William Paterson
Jonathan Dayton

PENNSYLVANIA:

Benjamin Franklin
Thomas Mifflin
Robert Morris
George Clymer
Thomas Fitzsimmons
James Wilson
Gouverneur Morris

DELAWARE:

George Read
Gunning Bedford, Jr.
John Dickinson
Richard Bassett
Jacob Broom

MARYLAND:

James McHenry
Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer
Daniel Carroll

VIRGINIA:

John Blair
James Madison, Jr.

NORTH CAROLINA:

William Blount
Richard Dobbs Spaight
Hugh Williamson

SOUTH CAROLINA:

John Rutledge
Charles Pinckney
Charles Cotesworth Pinckney
Pierce Butler

GEORGIA:

William Few
Abraham Baldwin

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, Secretary.

AMENDMENTS

Articles in addition to, and amendments of, the Constitution of the United States of America, proposed by Congress, and ratified by the legislatures of the several states pursuant of the fifth article of the original Constitution.

ARTICLE I

FREEDOM OF RELIGION AND SPEECH; RIGHT OF ASSEMBLY

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II

RIGHT TO BEAR ARMS

A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III

QUARTERING OF TROOPS

No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV

RIGHT OF SEARCH PROHIBITED

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V

RIGHT OF TRIAL BY JURY

No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual

service in time of war and public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life and limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI

RIGHTS OF ACCUSED IN CRIMINAL CASES

In all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the state and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII

SUITS AT COMMON LAW

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of common law.

ARTICLE VIII

BAIL AND FINES

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX

MODIFICATION OF ENUMERATED RIGHTS

The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X

POWERS RESERVED TO STATES AND THE PEOPLE

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI

LIMITATION TO POWER OF THE FEDERAL COURTS

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another state, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XII

NEW ELECTORAL LAW

The electors shall meet in their respective states and vote by ballot for President and Vice-president, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-president; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-president, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate; the President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the vote shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote. A quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-president shall act as president, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-president shall be the Vice-president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list the Senate shall choose the Vice-president. A quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-president of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII

ABOLITION OF SLAVERY

Slavery and Involuntary Servitude Prohibited

Section 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Sec. 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV

NEW LAWS MADE NECESSARY BY THE CIVIL WAR

Qualifications for Citizenship

Section 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the state wherein they reside. No state shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any state deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Apportionment of Representatives

Sec. 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several states according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each state, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-president of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a state, or the members of the legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such state, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such state.

Disability for Breaking Oath of Office

Sec. 3. No person shall be a senator, or representative in Congress, or elector of President or Vice-president, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any state, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or

as a member of any state legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any state, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each house, remove such disability.

The Public Debt

Sec. 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any state shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

Sec. 5. Congress shall have the power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV

RIGHT OF SUFFRAGE

Right Guaranteed to All Citizens

Section 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any state, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

Sec. 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XVI

INCOME TAX

The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several states, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

ARTICLE XVII

ELECTION OF SENATORS

The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislatures.

When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: *Provided*, That the legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the legislature may direct.

This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

PRESIDENTS, VICE-PRESIDENTS, SECRETARIES OF STATE, AND CHIEF JUSTICES

No.	President	State	Term of Office	By whom Elected	No. of States Voting	Vice-President	Secretary of State	Chief Justice Supreme Court
1	George Washington	Va.	Two; 1789-97	All	{ 10 } { 15 }	John Adams	Thomas Jefferson Edmund Randolph Timothy Pickens John Marshall	John Jay 1789-1795 John Rutledge 1795-1796 Oliver Ellsworth 1796-1800 John Marshall 1801-1835
2	John Adams	Mass.	One; 1797-1801	Fed.	16	Thomas Jefferson	James Madison	
3	Thomas Jefferson	Va.	Two; 1801-09	Dem.-Rep.	{ 17 } { 17 }	Aaron Burr	Robert Smith James Monroe	
4	James Madison	Va.	Two; 1809-17	Dem.-Rep.	17	George Clinton	John Quincy Adams	
5	James Monroe	Va.	Two; 1817-25	Dem.-Rep.	18	Elbridge Gerry	Henry Clay	
6	John Quincy Adams	Mass.	One; 1825-29	House	24	Daniel D. Tompkins	Edmund Livingston Louis McLane	
7	Andrew Jackson	Tenn.	Two; 1829-37	Dem.	24	John C. Calhoun	John Forsyth Daniel Webster	Roger B. Taney 1836-1864
8	Martin Van Buren	N. Y.	One; 1837-41	Dem.	26	Richard M. Johnson	Hugh S. Legaré	
9	William H. Harrison	Ohio	One m.; 1841	Whigs	26	John Tyler	John C. Calhoun	
10	John Tyler	Va.	3 yrs. 11 m.; 1841-45	Whigs	..	George M. Dallas	James Buchanan	
11	James K. Polk	Tenn.	One; 1845-49	Dem.	26	Millard Fillmore	John M. Clayton	
12	Zachary Taylor	La.	1 yr. 4 m.; 1849-50	Whigs	30	William R. King	Edward Everett	
13	Millard Fillmore	N. Y.	2 yrs. 8 m.; 1850-53	Whigs	..	J. C. Breckinridge	Lewis Cass	
14	Franklin Pierce	N. Hampt.	One; 1853-57	Dem.	31	Hamibal Hamlin	William H. Seward	Salmon P. Chase 1864-1873
15	James Buchanan	Penn.	One; 1857-61	Dem.	51	Andrew Johnson	Edwin M. Stanton	Monroe R. Waite 1874-1889
16	Abraham Lincoln	Ill.	One 1 m.; 1861-65	Rep.	{ 23 } { 25 }	Schuyler Colfax	William M. Evarts	
17	Andrew Johnson	Tenn.	3 yrs. 11 m.; 1865-69	Rep.	31	Henry Wilson	James C. Blaine	
18	Ulysses S. Grant	Ill.	Two; 1869-77	Rep.	{ 35 } { 38 }	William A. Wheeler	John Sherman	
19	Rutherford B. Hayes	Ohio	One; 1877-81	Rep.	38	Chester A. Arthur	John Hay	
20	James A. Garfield	Ohio	6 m.; 1881	Rep.	38	Thomas A. Hendricks	Richard J. Olney	Melville W. Fuller 1888-1910
21	Chester A. Arthur	N. Y.	3 yrs. 5 m.; 1881-85	Rep.	38	Levi P. Morton	James C. Blaine	
22	Grover Cleveland	N. Y.	One; 1885-89	Dem.	38	Adlai E. Stevenson	John Sherman	
23	Benjamin Harrison	Ind.	One; 1889-93	Rep.	44	Garet A. Hobart	John Hay	
24	Grover Cleveland	N. Y.	One; 1893-97	Dem.	45	Theodore Roosevelt	William Root	
25	William McKinley	Ohio	One 7 m.; 1897-1901	Rep.	{ 45 } { 45 }	Charles W. Fairbanks	William C. Knox	Edward D. White 1910
26	Theodore Roosevelt	N. Y.	Two; 1901-1909	Rep.	45	James S. Sherman	William C. Bryan	
27	William H. Taft	Ohio	One; 1909-13	Rep.	46	Thomas R. Marshall		
27	Woodrow Wilson	Va.	One; 1913	Dem.	48			

STATES AND TERRITORIES, CAPITALS, GOVERNORS, LEGISLATURE

STATES AND TERRITORIES	Capitals	Governors		Legislature Limit of Session
		Term	Salary	
Alabama.....	Montgomery.....	2 years	\$5,000	50 days
Alaska Territory.....	Juneau.....	4 years	7,000	60 days
Arizona.....	Phoenix.....	4 years	4,000	None
Arkansas.....	Little Rock.....	2 years	4,000	60 days
California.....	Sacramento.....	4 years	10,000	60 days
Colorado.....	Denver.....	2 years	5,000	90 days
Connecticut.....	Hartford.....	2 years	5,000	None
Delaware.....	Dover.....	4 years	4,000	None
Dist. of Columbia.....	Washington.....			
Florida.....	Tallahassee.....	4 years	5,000	60 days
Georgia.....	Atlanta.....	2 years	5,000	50 days
Guam Colony.....	Agana.....			
Hawaii Colony.....	Honolulu.....	4 years	7,000	
Idaho.....	Boise City.....	2 years	5,000	60 days
Illinois.....	Springfield.....	4 years	12,000	None
Indiana.....	Indianapolis.....	4 years	8,000	60 days
Iowa.....	Des Moines.....	2 years	5,000	None
Kansas.....	Topeka.....	2 years	5,000	40 days
Kentucky.....	Frankfort.....	4 years	6,500	60 days
Louisiana.....	Baton Rouge.....	4 years	5,000	60 days
Maine.....	Augusta.....	2 years	3,000	None
Maryland.....	Annapolis.....	4 years	4,500	90 days
Massachusetts.....	Boston.....	1 year	8,000	None
Michigan.....	Lansing.....	2 years	5,000	None
Minnesota.....	St. Paul.....	2 years	7,000	90 days
Mississippi.....	Jackson.....	4 years	5,000	60 days
Missouri.....	Jefferson City.....	4 years	5,000	70 days
Montana.....	Helena.....	4 years	5,000	60 days
Nebraska.....	Lincoln.....	2 years	2,500	60 days
Nevada.....	Carson City.....	4 years	4,000	60 days
New Hampshire.....	Concord.....	2 years	3,000	None
New Jersey.....	Trenton.....	3 years	10,000	None
New Mexico.....	Santa Fe.....	4 years	5,000	60 days
New York.....	Albany.....	2 years	10,000	None
North Carolina.....	Raleigh.....	4 years	6,000	60 days
North Dakota.....	Bismarck.....	2 years	5,000	60 days
Ohio.....	Columbus.....	2 years	10,000	None
Oklahoma.....	Oklahoma City.....	4 years	4,500	None
Oregon.....	Salem.....	4 years	5,000	40 days
Pennsylvania.....	Harrisburg.....	4 years	10,000	None
Philippines Pro.....	Manila.....		15,000	
Porto Rico Colony.....	San Juan.....	4 years	8,000	
Rhode Island.....	Newport.....	2 years	3,000	None
South Carolina.....	Columbia.....	2 years	3,000	None
South Dakota.....	Pierre.....	2 years	3,000	60 days
Tennessee.....	Nashville.....	2 years	4,000	75 days
Texas.....	Austin.....	2 years	4,000	90 days
Utah.....	Salt Lake City.....	4 years	6,000	60 days
Vermont.....	Montpelier.....	2 years	2,500	None
Virginia.....	Richmond.....	4 years	5,000	90 days
Washington.....	Olympia.....	4 years	6,000	60 days
West Virginia.....	Charleston.....	4 years	5,000	45 days
Wisconsin.....	Madison.....	2 years	5,000	None
Wyoming.....	Cheyenne.....	4 years	4,000	40 days

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- Anti-Masonic party, 336.
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- aristocratic, being in favor of a government in which the sovereign power is entirely in the hands of certain persons; tending toward displaying preëminence by reason of birth, wealth, and culture, 91.
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- Ä'r mā' dā, Īn vin' çible, a strong fleet composed of one hundred and fifty ships. It was sent (1588) by King Philip II of Spain against England to avenge the raiding and plundering attacks of Sir Francis Drake and other English seamen.
- army, American Revolutionary—
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- arts are classified as :
a. The fine arts, or arts of beauty; such as painting, sculpture, music, poetry, etc.
b. The industrial or useful arts, which include the trades requiring chiefly manual labor and skill.
c. The liberal arts embrace the higher branches of learning such as the languages, history, sciences, etc.
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 bombard, to attack with artillery, especially to throw shells, hot shot, etc., at or into, 405.
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- election of Benedict XV, 601, 608.
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- caucus, a meeting of leaders of a party,
to decide on the policies or can-
didates for office to be supported,
336.
- Cāv' à liērs', those of the court party in
the times of Kings Charles I and
II. They were thus called from
their long flowing locks, gay dress,
and demeanors, as contrasted with
the austerity of the Parliamentary
party, who were styled "Round-
heads" from the mode in which
they wore their hair closely
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- centennial, a one-hundredth celebration
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- center of commerce, 21.
- center of population, a point through
which if an east-west line be
drawn, there are as many people
to the north as to the south of it,
and if a north-south line be drawn
there are as many people to the
east as to the west of it, 541.
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 C'Y bō lā, Seven cities of, according to a
 legend, when the Arabs invaded the

Spanish peninsula, seven bishops
 with many followers escaped and
 built the seven cities of Cibola on
 an island in the Atlantic Ocean.
 One of the Indian tribes preserved
 a story of seven caves in which
 their ancestors lived. This was
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 Cī pān' gō, 21.
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 circular letter, a letter addressed to
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 clan, a tribe composed of all the families tracing descent from a common ancestor.
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 Coligny (ko len ye'), Gaspard, 55.
 College in Rome, American, "The American College of the Roman Catholic Church of the United States, Rome, Italy," dates its origin to the proclamation of the dogma of the Immaculate Conception (1854). On this occasion a number of American bishops, through Archbishop Hughes of New York and Kendricks of Baltimore, expressed to Pius IX

the desire to see an American College established that would take rank with the other national colleges in that city. Subsequently, Pius IX purchased, for forty-two thousand dollars an old Visitation Convent, then occupied by soldiers of the French garrison, while the American Bishops furnished it and procured the funds necessary for its maintenance. Accordingly, the college was formally opened with thirteen students (Dec. 8, 1859), and has prospered remarkably ever since, 489.
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 Commissary Department, that department of an army which provides provisions, clothing, and all the daily necessities other than those connected with actual fighting, 205.
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 Commonwealth, a state in which the supreme power is vested in the people; strictly speaking, the form of government existing under Cromwell, and his son Richard, 81.
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 Compromise, a settlement by arbitration or by mutual consent reached by concession of both sides, 235.
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 corps, a body containing two or more
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 countersign, a secret word or phrase
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 court-martial, a court consisting of mili-
 tary or naval officers for the trial
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 Crescent, the emblem of the Turkish
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 cruiser, usually an armed vessel that sails to and fro for the protection of other vessels in search of an enemy of the government, 215.
 Crusades', sacred wars undertaken by the chivalry of Christian nations for the deliverance of the Holy Land, and especially the Sepulcher of our Lord, from Mohammedan oppression, 21.
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 emancipation, the act of setting free
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 embargo, an order of the government
 prohibiting the entry or departure
 of ships of commerce, in ports
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 Emergency currency, currency in use
 since 1907, intended to prevent
 panics. These issues are preserved
 in a special vault, and to prevent
 an indiscriminate use of them, a
 graduated tax is placed upon the
 same while in circulation. The
 tax is five per cent per annum and
 is increased from one per cent per
 month until it reaches ten per cent
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 emigrated, to have come from one coun-
 try, state or region, to another for
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 encroachment, the act of entering grad-
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 lowest grade in the navy corre-
 sponding to the grade of second
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 envoy, a person appointed by a govern-
 ment to negotiate a treaty or
 transact other business, 276.
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 Express, Pony, 373.

- expropriate, to deprive of possession or proprietary rights, 489.
- extradition, the surrender or delivery of an alleged criminal by one state or sovereignty to another having jurisdiction to try the charge, 352.
- Fabian Policy, following the tactics of the famous Roman General Fabius, who, when contending with Hannibal, avoided engagements, and worried him with continual delays, 206.
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 Gär' där, the name of a bishopric in southern Greenland, tenth century, 21.
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 gentry, people of education and good breeding in England; those between yeomen, or common people, and the nobility, 81.
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- Gôr' gës, 112, 122, 125.
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 Göth' ie, of or pertaining to the style of architecture so-called; characterized by pointed arches, steep roofs, large windows, and generally great height. 562.
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 gravity, law of, that force by which all bodies or particles of matter tend toward each other, 24.
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 Gregorian Chant, a kind of unisonous or plain music according to the eight celebrated Church modes as arranged and prescribed by Pope Gregory in the sixth century, 561.
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 Guaj dá loupe' Hí dàl' gô, a suburb of the city of Mexico famous as containing the shrine of "Our Lady of Guadalupe," 363, 364, 398.
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 guër ril' lá, an irregular mode of carrying on war; the constant attacks by independent bands, 535.
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 habeas corpus, writ of, a writ issued by a court directing a person imprisoned to appear before it that the legality of his confinement may be determined, 438, 446, 457, 462, 479.
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 Hessians, troops hired by England from several German principalities. The Hessians, many of whom (all of the three thousand Westphalians) were Catholic, did their duty in America bravely and faithfully, with loyalty to a service from which they could expect no profit of their own. The charge sometimes made that they were cruel barbarians is false. They fought because they could not help it. The shame belonged to their princes, and not to themselves, 191, 197, 243.
 Hī ā wā' thā, the hero of an American Indian legend immortalized in the poem Hiawatha, 59.
 hierarchy, a body of persons, bishops, and priests, to whom is entrusted the government of the Church, 517.
 hieroglyphic, character in picture writing, as of the ancient Egyptians or American Indians, 37.
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- House of Burgesses, 82, 83, 116, 161, 171.
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- House of Lords, one of the divisions of the English Parliament consisting of Lords spiritual (bishops and archbishops), Lords temporal (hereditary or created nobles), 82.
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- impeachment, the calling to account of a public officer for bad management of any business, 471, 484, 508, 602.
- impressment of seamen, 292, 296, 300.
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- Independence, steps toward, 190.
- Independent National party. See Greenback.
- Independent treasury, a private place to keep the money of the government when not in use, originally provided for during Van Buren's administration. It relieves the government of depending upon the banks for public money, 345, 349, 351, 358.
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 Moors, the Moors, followers of Mohamed, originally came from Arabia, whence they swept along the northern coast of Africa as far west as the Strait of Gibraltar. Crossing the strait, they conquered the greater part of the Spanish peninsula. They, however, lost power before the Christian kingdoms of Aragon and Castile, and finally their possessions were limited to the kingdom of Granada, which surrendered to Ferdinand, the Catholic (1492). The expelled Moors settled in northern Africa and eventually developed into the piratical states of Barbary, 27.
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 oath of office, a solemn declaration made
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 on the Bible, to preserve, protect,
 and defend the Constitution of the
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 parole, promise upon one's faith or honor to fulfill stated conditions, such as not to bear arms against one's captors, to return to custody, or the like; a watchword given only to officers of guards, as distinguished from a countersign given to all guards, 449.
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 phoenix, a bird fabled to exist single,
 to be consumed by fire by its own
 act, and to rise again from its
 ashes; hence an emblem of immor-
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plurality, the excess of the number of
votes cast for the leading candi-
date over those cast for each of his
competitors in case there are more
than two candidates, and no one
receives a majority, or more than
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corporations for the control of
trade by removing competition,
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prime minister, the chief or responsible
head of the cabinet in Great Brit-
ain, usually the first Lord of the
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165.
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privateers, vessels owned by individ-
uals to whom are issued by their
government "letters of marque and
reprisal" which give them the right
to fit out vessels for the purpose
of making war on the shipping of
an enemy, 268.
privateering, 213, 303, 304, 394, 480.
privy council, the principal council of
the English Sovereign, composed
of the cabinet members and other
persons chosen by the king, 156.
prize, that which is seized by fighting,
especially a ship. The prizes taken
at sea are regulated by law. The
money, realized by the sale of the
booty, is taken by the captors in
certain proportions according to
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 recruit, a newly enrolled soldier or sailor, 193.
 Red Cross Society, a national organization so named from its badge, a red cross on a white ground. Its purpose is the relief of suffering caused by war, pestilence, famine, flood, and fires, 539.
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- revolution, renunciation of allegiance and subjection resulting in an entire change of government, 181.
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- Rō chām beau' (bō), Count, 223, 239.
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- Rō män èske' (èsk), the prevailing architectural style developed from Roman principles, characterized mainly by the round arch, barrel vault, and general massiveness, 562.
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- Rous seau (sō'), a French philosopher (1712-1778), a contemporary of Voltaire, and like him a denier of all authority arising from custom, history, right religion, and the state, 255.
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 scout, a person sent out to gain and bring in tidings, especially one employed in war to gain information of the movements and conditions of the enemy, 221.
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- Vexilla Regis, a famous hymn of the Catholic Church sung in the church on Good Friday when the Blessed Sacrament is carried in procession from the Repository to the High Altar, 30.
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- Vôl tâtre', a French freethinker, an infidel writer, an apostle of the French Revolution, who turned his gifts of poetry and wit into malicious weapons of slander and ridicule against the Catholic Church. "Crush the infamous thing," was the motto of his life, 255.
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